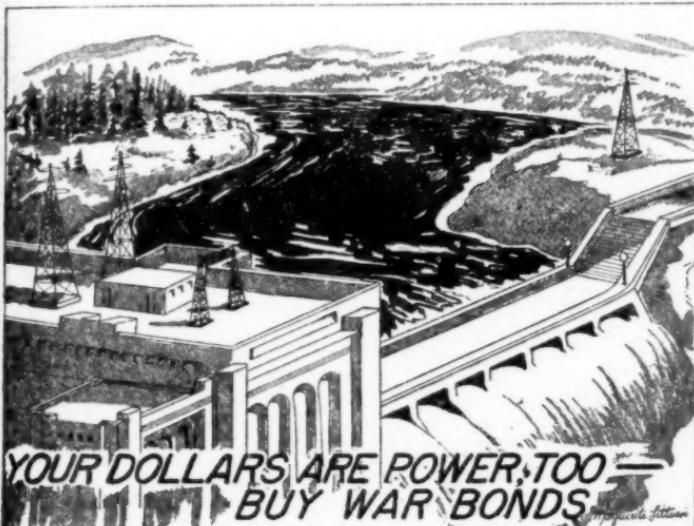


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In this Issue . . . Seniority in automobile industry . . . Employment in airframe plants . . . War migration and post-war demobilization . . .

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR SEPTEMBER 1944

Seniority in the Automobile Industry¹

Summary

SENIORITY, in most union agreements, is a measure of a claim to a job, based on length of service. In the minds of many workers seniority has become synonymous with the job itself. This is revealed in the reluctance of many workers to give up their seniority on peacetime and less-essential jobs for generally more remunerative war work. In order to induce workers to shift to defense jobs in the early stages of the re-armament program, the Office for Production Management found it necessary to recommend to management and labor that seniority rights to old jobs be protected.

Because of the extensive movement of automobile workers to war jobs during the period of conversion to war production and in view of the future shifts to peacetime jobs, the seniority arrangements in union agreements in the automobile industry assume special significance. In a recent study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, an attempt was made to ascertain the peacetime seniority arrangements in the automobile industry, how these arrangements were affected by the shifting of jobs and men during the period of conversion and war production, and what post-war claims to jobs based on seniority had been provided for in union agreements.

The study indicated that seniority problems which arose in the course of the conversion of automobile plants to the production of military equipment were usually resolved either by changing to a plant-wide unit or by placing all transfers to war jobs on a temporary basis. In the case of both intraplant and intracompany transfers, the rule has generally been that defense and war service shall be added to that already acquired on peacetime jobs. In the case of intercompany transfers, seniority is governed by the Office for Production Management regulations and the War Manpower stabilization plan for the Detroit area. In anticipation of reconversion to peacetime production, local unions are moving in the direction of plant-wide seniority.

¹This is a summary of a more complete report prepared by Jonas Silver and Everett M. Kassalow of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, which may be obtained by writing to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Union agreements, Government regulations, and interviews with union (International Union of United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers—C. I. O.) officers and industry officials provided data for this report. Nine of the largest companies in the peacetime automobile industry in the Detroit and Flint (Mich.) areas (including some companies operating several plants) were included in the survey, which was completed in March 1944.

Although none of the agreements covering the plants visited established seniority as the controlling factor in selecting workers for promotions, it was found that in practice in a number of plants workers are promoted primarily on the basis of length of service. Workers entering military service accumulate seniority during their absence, but some friction has developed as to the precise reemployment rights of such workers. Women and Negro workers have been hired into the industry in great numbers since the war, but if the automobile plants revert to their normal peacetime force after the war, both these groups face wholesale lay-off under the existing seniority rules.

Attitudes Toward Seniority

Interviews with management officials in the automobile industry indicated that they generally were of the opinion that seniority is "the union's prerogative." However, certain express qualifications were made, namely, that in the interest of productive efficiency, job displacements on lay-offs should be confined to closely related if not identical occupations within a department or division and that ability should be considered foremost in making promotions. Some officials were of the opinion that workers had come to regard seniority as a job-creating device and that this led the union to insist upon impractical seniority rules. Management also found disagreeable the periodic changes in local union administration, leading in many cases to requests for changes in seniority rules.

The primary purpose of seniority rules from the union viewpoint is to provide a measure of equity in the allocation of limited jobs. Pre-union experience with company discrimination in arranging lay-offs and job changes indicated the need for some sort of objective criterion, such as length of service. Union spokesmen were of the opinion that management's recognition of seniority as "the union's prerogative" was more in theory than in practice. They pointed to employers' increasing concern in all seniority questions, because in some instances back wages were recovered where wrongful lay-offs had taken place.

The International Union of United Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers of America (C. I. O.) has no fixed seniority formula.² It recognizes that local situations present their own unique problems which have to be resolved individually. However, the general objective of each local union is to phrase the seniority provisions so as to provide the maximum job protection for the workers with longest service. Ability to do the job is a minimum qualification not stressed except in the case of promotions, as regards which a somewhat more flexible interpretation of the ability factor is accepted.

Seniority is a source of intraunion controversy as well as a problem in union-management relations. Protection for the senior workers sometimes encounters opposition on the part of those with relatively less seniority. The latter may seek "to throw a wall about their departments" in the plant in order to prevent workers with longer service in other departments from displacing them in case of reduction of force. These and other dissenters have at times formed pressure

² National agreements negotiated by the U. A. W.-C. I. O. with such companies as General Motors and the Ford Motor Co., allow for local seniority arrangements to implement the master agreement.

groups within the local unions in an attempt to gain seniority rules satisfactory to their particular interests.

Lay-Offs and Rehiring

The most important application of seniority occurs in lay-offs and rehiring. The nature of plant organization limits the extent to which employees with seniority may displace those with little or no seniority in a reduction of working force.³ The broadest seniority division is between production work, on the one hand, and the skilled-trades group consisting of such occupations as tool and die makers, pattern makers, powerhouse workers, and construction and maintenance men, on the other. There is a further division within these two broad categories based on what is known in the automobile industry as a noninterchangeable occupational group.

Noninterchangeable occupational group.—The noninterchangeable occupational group consists of a limited number of occupations closely related in skill and wage rate, interchangeable as to one another but not as to occupations in other noninterchangeable occupational groups. For example, welders (including acetylene welder, tack welder, and assembly welder) may constitute one such group. Among the noninterchangeable occupational groups of the skilled trades may be found tool maker, electrician, or carpenter.

Unit of seniority application.—A noninterchangeable occupational group may apply only to a department or a division, or it may extend to a whole plant or several plants, depending upon the nature of the work and its relation to the production process. In one company which manufactured automobile bodies, seniority was by noninterchangeable occupational groups within divisions, each division containing one or more departments. Thus, occupations in the fender-assembly division were not interchangeable with occupations in the inspection division; occupations in the light and heavy press divisions were not interchangeable with occupations in the paint division. A man laid off from a job involving the operation of one type of press, could, if he had more seniority from date of his hiring in the plant, "bump" or displace a man with less seniority working on another type of press in the same division, since press operations were in one occupational group interchangeable as to one another but not as to other occupational groups. If presses were operated in other parts of the plant within another division this same worker could not displace a junior employee in one of these jobs since he was in most cases limited to movement within his own division.

The application of seniority in the skilled-trades noninterchangeable occupational groups is always co-extensive with the physical area of the work. Thus, a carpenter or an electrician may displace another carpenter or electrician anywhere in the same plant.

The union's objective is not only to widen the noninterchangeable occupational group to include its version of occupations related in skills, but also to expand the seniority unit to a plant-wide basis. Management generally takes the position that too wide a noninterchangeable occupational group and too broad a unit of application result in undue job displacements in the course of a lay-off and in a consequent loss of efficiency.

³In some agreements seniority does not apply to temporary lay-offs caused by breakage, shortage of materials, and "manufacturing irregularities."

Rehiring.—Rehiring is carried out in reverse order of lay-off, i. e., those laid off last are rehired first. Where jobs within a unit are arranged in order of progression, the senior laid-off man gets the first opportunity to resume work at the lower classifications and, as production increases, finally moves up to the job he left. Generally, however, employees are called back directly to their regular department in their own noninterchangeable occupational groups, except that they may be offered temporary work in other departments which have advanced in production beyond the capacity of their normal labor force.

Work sharing.—Probationary employees are dropped from the employment rolls before workers with seniority are laid off. If there is further need of a reduction of working force, either employees with the least seniority are laid off or the weekly work schedule is reduced to a 32-hour minimum before senior workers are affected. Work sharing is looked upon with disfavor by the union as "sharing of the misery," but it is accepted as a necessary expedient in periods of reduced employment.

Peacetime Arrangements, Conversion to War Production, and Cutbacks

In the course of the conversion of automobile plants to the production of military equipment, few changes were made in the seniority provisions governing lay-off and rehiring. Problems occurred in plants where workers in machine departments, which continued to operate during the conversion because of ready adaptability to war work, resisted encroachment upon their seniority by workers who sought to transfer to these units after lay-offs in other departments. In other plants where each department might be engaged in a separate war job, when employment in one job diminished and other departments continued at a high level workers laid off sought to exercise their seniority on a plant-wide basis. In both such cases the local might point to a clause in the agreement which grants plant-wide seniority to workers displaced as a result of the permanent discontinuance of an operation or department. Some companies contend that this clause applies only in peacetime to jobs on automobile production and that changes in war production schedules are too variable to permit plant-wide displacements.

The following sections contain some plant-by-plant experience of practical applications of seniority to lay-off and rehiring during the conversion and war production periods.⁴

Plant A.—In peacetime seniority was by noninterchangeable occupational groups within each division of this automobile assembly plant. The division coincided with related production stages. For example, the plant consisted of six divisions, viz., paint, trim, assembly, machine, material, and tool and die. In December 1941 automobile output was cut sharply, the effects being particularly felt in the assembly division. Work in the machine division remained steady, owing in part to the introduction of a gun plant after Pearl Harbor. In accordance with the provision of the union agreement, which permits the carry-over of seniority from discontinued departments to other parts of the plant, workers displaced from the assembly division were placed in the machine division. At first these transfers met no objection from the senior employees of the machine division, since only those with recently acquired seniority were transferred. However, when automobile production shut down completely in the winter of

⁴ Additional examples may be found in the more detailed report referred to in footnote 1.

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1942, men with 1924 seniority in assembly and 1929 seniority in the trim division sought to carry over seniority into the machine division. This move met with opposition from senior workers in the machine division who were afraid of being outranked by the transferred men.

In order to overcome the self-interest of workers in particular divisions, which stood in the way of the effective manning of war jobs, seniority was made plant-wide by noninterchangeable occupational groups, but only on a temporary wartime basis. When placements on war jobs continued to lag, hiring was put on a straight seniority basis without regard for noninterchangeable occupational groups. Thus painters were placed on machine work following the completion of a training period. The apparent understanding was that with the end of war production all workers will revert to their peacetime jobs with accumulated seniority. However, union officials admitted that the entire matter would be a source of confusion on reversion because of conflicting promises made to induce transfer.

Plant B.—This plant manufactured automobile hardware in peacetime, and it now produces precision aircraft instruments. Prior to December 1941, seniority was on a divisional basis with each division roughly equivalent to a building. Within the division the noninterchangeable occupational groups were confined to the somewhat skilled occupations which carried a rate of \$1 per hour or more. Those jobs with a lower rate were placed in a "clearing group" below the \$1 wage-rate line. Each division had its own "clearing group."

A worker would normally be upgraded from unskilled jobs to higher skills above the "clearing group" line. Lay-off for senior employees was by length of service in their noninterchangeable occupational groups in reverse order of upgrading within each division. If need be a senior employee could have "bumped" another worker on any job in the "clearing group." Thus it was possible for a worker on a top production job, such as an automatic-screw-machine operator, to displace a sweeper at the bottom of the division. On re-hiring, a worker had the choice of waiting for his job to open up or of beginning a common-labor job until full production got under way. This arrangement differed from the strict noninterchangeable occupational group in that a worker moved out of his group into another group within a division or, failing that, into a common-labor job.

A local seniority supplement has recently been negotiated as the result of lay-offs caused by changes in war production schedules. It makes the seniority unit for lay-offs plant-wide for the noninterchangeable occupational groups above the "clearing group" line. A worker in one noninterchangeable occupational group with sufficient seniority may now displace another worker on a job in another noninterchangeable occupational group which the former had previously performed for at least 60 days (1 year on certain classifications). The union sought unsuccessfully to extend plant-wide seniority to the jobs below the "clearing group" line but local management would not permit "bumping" to that extent. In widening the seniority unit, the local union had in view the future reconversion period as well as present lay-off problems.

Plant C.—This plant manufactures a number of war products, including airplane engines, bomber parts, etc. The peacetime seniority structure was by noninterchangeable occupational groups within each of the numerous buildings comprising the establishment. In the absence of lay-offs, since the establishment of collective bargaining at this plant, no opportunity presented itself until recently to test the practicability of this seniority arrangement. Fear of partial plant shut-downs under war production, which would leave men with seniority in their own buildings unable to apply it to jobs in other buildings, moved the union to negotiate seniority anew.

The union's position is that jobs with similar content should be interchangeable on a plant-wide basis. The ideal arrangement from the union viewpoint would be to establish noninterchangeable occupational groups corresponding to skilled, semiskilled, production, and nonproduction jobs throughout all the buildings of the plant. This would afford a senior man the widest possible opportunity to obtain some sort of job were he forced to relinquish his own on a lay-off. There is an admittedly opposing point of view on the part of some workers with comparatively recent seniority dates who would rather retain the building as the seniority unit, since it would prevent "bumping in" by older employees.

The company considers as interchangeable those jobs which require a breaking-in period of 3 to 10 days. Jobs which involve print reading, drawing interpretations, and machine adjusting are regarded as skilled and noninterchangeable. It is impractical, the company maintains, to establish seniority on a plant-wide basis. The different buildings are like separate and distinct factories manufacturing their own products and requiring their own skills. Wide shifts in

jobs which result from a plant-wide seniority system create too much disturbance, entailing new clock cards, new foremen, and new work-habit adjustments. Negotiations had not been concluded at the time the Bureau's representatives were in Detroit.

Plant D.—This company was engaged in automobile assembly and the manufacture of engines before the war; it now manufactures marine and aircraft engines. In 1940 the seniority unit was changed from department to plant for workers who possessed a year or more of service. This rule was adopted after conflict within the local union growing out of the plight of senior men laid off while others having less service continued to work in other departments in the plant. At present, the workers who have been laid off because of insufficient plant-wide seniority in their occupations may apply that seniority to any other occupation in the plant that they are able to perform. The only limitation is that workers with less than 1 year of service are confined to displacements on occupations within a department. This arrangement represents the maximum expansion in seniority unit, since the plant is coextensive with the company. No difficulties have been encountered in applying this type of seniority in the conversion and war production period.

*Transfers*⁵

Conversion and war production changes have provided the stimulus for transfers within a plant, from plant to plant of the same company, and from company to company. In peacetime, seniority was usually carried over from one noninterchangeable occupational group to another within a department, from department to department, or from division to division. If seniority was not carried over on transfers, it was retained and accumulated on the old job. During lay-off, this accumulated seniority might be exercised in returning to the "home" or original unit. All of the collective agreements studied provided that, if operations were moved from one unit of the plant to another, workers affected by the transfer carried their seniority with them.

Seniority on defense and war jobs, in most cases, dates from the start of employment on these positions; after the war, however, defense and war service will be added to the seniority already acquired on peacetime jobs. Even where the agreement provides that peacetime seniority shall carry over to wartime jobs, the latter are usually regarded as temporary in nature though this is not always made clear to the workers involved.

Protection of seniority on intercompany transfers is covered by the Office for Production Management regulations and the War Manpower Commission stabilization plan for the Detroit area.

INTRAPLANT TRANSFERS

Workers with seniority were generally given preference on those defense and war jobs most closely related to their peacetime occupations. Some agreements specify a definite date after which all job transfers are regarded as temporary wartime changes. Thus, the agreement of the U. A. W.-C. I. O. with the Hudson Motor Car Co. states: "At the conclusion of this defense work, the seniority lists of January 1, 1941, will be the controlling factor in returning defense employees to Hudson automobile work." However, the Bureau's representatives found that in several plants workers had transferred

⁵ "Transfers," as here used, refer to job shifts from one seniority unit to another, occasioned by vacancies or the need for additional workers. Transfers to avert lay-offs are included under the heading of "lay-off and rehiring." Upgrading from production to mechanical work is described in the section on "skilled trades."

to war jobs with the understanding that they were to carry over their seniority on a permanent basis, despite the fact that in one case this was contrary to the original union agreement. Local union officials were concerned over the possibility of post-war job claims based on oral promises made to induce transfers.

INTERPLANT TRANSFERS

Under the peacetime arrangements of companies operating plants in different localities, seniority in one plant generally was not carried over to another when workers shifted their employment. Only in exceptional circumstances, such as the physical transfer of operations or departments from one plant to another, did some of the agreements provide for application of seniority on an interplant basis. In cases of permanent plant shut-down, employees with seniority were usually given preference in reemployment in other plants of the same company. Union officials attributed the transfer of plant operations in some instances to a desire on the part of management to destroy existing seniority rights.

In the defense period the question was raised as to whether transferred employees would be permitted to carry over seniority to the new plants or whether their seniority in the new plants would start from the date of their employment there, while accumulating on their old jobs. This was an intraunion as well as union-management problem. To protect the seniority ranking of "home" employees, local unions usually took the position that workers transferring in from other plants of the same company could not carry over their seniority.

INTERCOMPANY TRANSFERS

In order to promote the transfer of skilled workers to defense plants during the conversion period, a system under which seniority would be protected had to be devised. Workers were reluctant to transfer, for under the peacetime seniority arrangements this move would result in loss of service credit built up over a period of years. Following conferences of representatives of the union, the automobile industry, and the Office for Production Management, a statement of policy designed to protect seniority upon intercompany transfers was arrived at, effective September 17, 1941.

Office for Production Management agreement.—As applied in the Detroit area, this plan provided that workers who accepted defense employment with another firm accumulated seniority in the company from which they were laid off or released. Employees who began a defense training course were given the same protection. Under the OPM agreement loaned or laid-off employees, if recalled to the home company, had to report back within 1 week. This arrangement produced complications when, in January 1942, civilian automobile production was stopped entirely. The right of plants which had started war production earlier to hold transferees ran completely counter to the right of newly converted plants to recall the original force.

To insure the effective distribution of labor to meet war production requirements, the OPM agreement was amended in June 1942, to enable a worker who had trained for "a new occupation necessary to the war effort" to retain his new job and accumulate seniority with

his original employer until January 1, 1943, unless offered a job of equivalent skill at his old plant. An employee whose "previous training and occupation in civilian production" were adequate for war work was subject to recall by the original employer upon 7 days' notice in order to retain seniority.

War Manpower Commission stabilization plan.—The War Manpower Commission employment stabilization plan for the Detroit area, designed to eliminate wasteful movements of workers between plants, became effective December 10, 1942. Under this plan, which applied to all industry in the Detroit area⁶ and took the place of the OPM program, a worker could change his employment and "maintain his seniority status with a former employer" where the job shift was to a higher skill or to full-time employment. The WMC plan changed the OPM agreement by freezing length of service as of date of transfer, as follows: "It is understood that the employee shall not accumulate seniority with his former employer during the period of this special absence except where existing union agreements provide otherwise for this specific type of leave of absence." A later stabilization plan, effective December 1, 1943, contains the same seniority clause. Unlike the former plan, however, a worker may retain his present job pending settlement by the War Manpower Commission of a dispute over the validity of recall by a former employer.⁷

Promotion Practices

Although none of the agreements covering the plants visited stated that seniority is to be the controlling factor in selecting workers for promotion to better-paying jobs, in practice it was found that in a number of plants workers are promoted primarily on the basis of length of service. In some plants where seniority and merit are given equal consideration in making promotions, the union insists on a trial period for the qualified senior employee before the latter can be passed over. Several local unions indicated that although they had been able to induce management to adhere strictly to seniority on promotions in the pre-war period, it had become increasingly difficult to obtain such adherence since the war and the making of the "no-strike pledge."

In general, management looks upon promotions as one of its prerogatives and although most of the companies offer little or no resistance to the strict application of seniority on lay-offs and rehiring, the promotion question is of greater concern to them. For the most part, the issue of seniority versus merit and ability in promotions is resolved by means of negotiation between the foreman and the shop steward whose department is involved. The union is usually careful to avoid "making a case" for any senior employee who is obviously unqualified or unsuited for the vacancy in question.

⁶ There is no WMC stabilization plan for the Flint area.

⁷ Despite the area WMC stabilization plan, it appears that seniority continues to accumulate on transfers to war jobs made within the automobile and automobile-parts industry, regardless of whether the shift in job occurred before or after December 10, 1942. Authority for this conclusion is a statement, dated December 29, 1942, by the Chairman of the WMC and the Chairman of the WPB to the International Secretary-Treasurer of the U. A. W.-C. I. O., in part as follows: "Any employment-stabilization plan which covers the automobile industry or the automobile-parts industry is expected to include provision with respect to the seniority rights of workers transferred from the automobile or the automobile-parts industry, at least equivalent to those contained in the Government's automobile industry labor-transfer policy OPM agreement as amended. To the extent that any establishments or workers in the automobile industry or automobile-parts industry are not covered by a stabilization plan which includes such equivalent provisions the Government's automobile labor-transfer policy as amended is hereby reaffirmed and further extended until you are otherwise notified." No notification has been received by the U. A. W.-C. I. O. from either the WMC or the WPB which countermands this statement.

Skilled Trades

The onset of the defense and war production programs created a great demand for all types of new tools, dies, fixtures, etc., and the normal peacetime force of available skilled journeymen in the Detroit area proved insufficient to meet the needs of the industry. Wholesale pirating of workers from one tool and die shop to another became common by 1941 and wage rates for such work moved steadily upward.

To alleviate the shortage of skilled labor in its plants, the General Motors Corporation reached an agreement with the U. A. W.-C. I. O. in June 1941 which was designed to expand employment in the tool and die departments, as well as to offer protection to genuinely qualified journeymen. Realizing the impracticability of recruiting a sufficient number of skilled mechanics by means of the regular 4-year apprenticeship program, union and management agreed to a special wartime upgrading plan. Under this plan, which covers all the General Motors plants under agreement with the U. A. W.-C. I. O., workers whose previous production experience and seniority might qualify them for work in the tool and die department are upgraded into the latter at a rate below the minimum for the job to which they are assigned. Typically, a worker with experience on a production lathe or milling machine might be upgraded to precision mill or lathe work in the tool room. By means of automatic increases over a specified period of time, the upgraders are advanced to the minimum rate for the job classification. Recognizing the importance of the skill factor in tool and die work, the union has not insisted on rigid adherence to seniority in the selection of production workers to fill the upgrader ranks.

Upgraders under this agreement possess only wartime seniority in the tool and die department; that is, their seniority in this department dates from their entrance therein, but they do continue to accumulate seniority on their old production jobs. In the event that lay-offs become necessary in the tool and die occupations, any journeyman, regardless of when hired, has preference over all upgraders provided he can perform the work available. Upgraders are confined to a separate seniority list and are laid off on the basis of their position on this list, depending, of course, on the jobs that are being reduced.

Upgrading and job specialization in the tool room make possible the training of a large number of workers for highly skilled tasks in a relatively short period, in contrast to the 4-year apprenticeship system. Further, although this system allows for increased productivity resulting from the fact that upgraders are specializing on single jobs, it also offers some protection for the regular journeymen in that upgraders do not learn the entire journeyman's trade and generally perform only one operation as, for example, running a lathe.

One difficulty in connection with the upgrading system arose as a result of the high degree of labor turnover in the industry. Frequently, workers who had acquired tool-room experience as upgraders in one General Motors plant would quit and obtain positions as journeymen in other plants of the corporation. In order to weed out all but genuinely qualified workers from the journeymen status, company and union have recently agreed to review the records and qualifications of their workers who had been hired by the corporation

as journeymen since June 24, 1941. This move is designed to protect upgraders who may actually have more tool-room experience than do some of the workers who have been hired as journeymen since June 1941. While it is agreed that no uniform standards are available for passing on the qualifications of workers claiming the rank of journeyman, union and management at present are exploring the possibility of providing some combined experience rating and performance test for would-be journeymen. In some of the automobile plants which operate under union-shop agreements, a special union committee composed of journeymen mechanics passes on the qualifications of any applicant who is seeking a position as journeyman in the tool and die department.

The General Motors U. A. W.-C. I. O. upgrading plan has provided the pattern for the remainder of the industry, and most of the other automobile plants have adopted a similar plan or are in process of doing so. In March 1942, the Automotive Tool and Die Manufacturers Association of Detroit and U. A. W.-C. I. O. local unions 155 and 157, which cover a majority of the workers in the tool and die job shops, negotiated an agreement similar to the General Motors plan.

Some of the companies and local unions have adopted the upgrading plans regulating advancement to the tool rooms, to cover promotions to skilled maintenance positions as, for example, electrician or millwright. However, the shortage of skilled maintenance workers has not been so critical as in the tool and die occupations, and upgrading into maintenance work has not been a common occurrence.

Although the U. A. W.-C. I. O. is an industrial union, its leaders recognize that they must offer protection to skilled craftsmen in the industry. Union officials believe that the present seniority and upgrading arrangements in the industry will prevent the creation of a labor glut in the tool and die trades in the post-war period, while the country's immediate wartime production needs will be met by taking advantage of the principle of division of labor.

Seniority of Servicemen

The union agreements covering the companies included in this study uniformly provide for the protection of the seniority of employees who are inducted or enlist in the armed forces of the country. In so doing, they follow the authority of the Selective Training and Service Act. Section 8 (b) of this statute describes the reemployment rights of returning veterans in part as follows: " * * * If such position was in the employ of a private employer, such employer shall restore such person to such position or to a position of like seniority, status, and pay unless the employer's circumstances have so changed as to make it impossible or unreasonable to do so."

The union interprets this clause to mean that a worker's seniority accumulates on his old job while he is in the armed forces and that upon discharge he is entitled to reemployment in order of relative seniority standing. Most of the agreements contain language which adopts this interpretation. The U. A. W.-C. I. O. believes that workers entering military service should not suffer any loss of seniority because of this absence; on the other hand, the union contends it would be unfair to penalize those workers who remained at their jobs during the war. In other words, a man with 5 years' seniority in the plant

should not be "bumped" by a returning veteran with a total of 3 years (2 acquired on the job and 1 while in the armed forces).

The union reported two cases in which the management had taken the opposite point of view, namely, that the statute required the re-employment of all servicemen who had worked in the plant prior to entering military service, regardless of their relative seniority standing in the plant. Aside from these two cases and those instances in which servicemen failed to apply for reemployment within the period allowed in the agreements, no difficulty has arisen in connection with the reinstatement of servicemen. With the cooperation of both union and management, men who are physically unable to perform the jobs they held before the war are given work more suited to their condition even though this may mean waiving seniority rules.

Women Workers

Few women were employed in the automobile plants before the war, and they were generally in the sewing or trim departments, although in a few cases they were employed on minor assembly operations as well as on small presses. Since the war women have been hired and advanced to all types of work, including riveting, welding, crane operations, major and minor assembly, inspection, running production lathes, mills, screw machines, all types of drill presses, etc. In a few plants women have been advanced to the tool and die departments as upgraders or trainees.

Although a large number of women have been added to the force since the war, most of the plants and local unions visited anticipate wholesale lay-offs of female workers in the post-war period, assuming that the automobile plants return to something approaching their normal peacetime force after the war. Since most of the agreements specifically provide that wartime shifts are of a strictly temporary nature, female employees who have been promoted to various assembly and machine jobs in the past few years face the prospect of reverting to their pre-war positions.

Negro Workers

The proportion of Negroes employed in the automobile industry before the war was notably small. The manpower shortage, the influence of the Fair Employment Practice Committee, a firm anti-discrimination policy on the part of the U. A. W.-C. I. O. international officials, and the cooperation of most of the automobile industry management has led to a great increase both, absolutely and relatively, in the number of Negroes now employed by the industry.

In the pre-war period Negroes were largely employed in janitorial or common-labor occupations in the automobile factories. They are now found on all types of assembly work, and, in some plants, in skilled machine occupations.

Although much progress has been made in advancing Negroes to better-paying jobs during the war period, most of the local unions and plants visited indicated that the number so promoted is relatively small in comparison to the number of white workers who have been upgraded. In some instances both management and white workers

have resisted the advancement of Negroes from labor to production jobs, in spite of the fact that observance of seniority practices dictated such promotions. It is generally agreed, however, that the upgrading of some colored workers to better jobs during the war period has established a precedent for the post-war employment of Negroes in higher job classifications.

Seniority in the Post-War Period

This study of seniority arrangements in the Detroit automobile industry raises some thought-provoking questions as to what may take place in the post-war period. The defense and war periods have given seniority status to thousands of new workers in the automobile industry. In the post-war period they will have a right to claim jobs in order of seniority, which means that former peacetime employees will be rehired first. Should the number of jobs in the post-war automobile industry be no greater than that of the highest peacetime year, a considerable number of workers with wartime seniority will have no more than paper claims to jobs.

Serious post-war unemployment may weaken the entire seniority structure. Returning servicemen, women who want to continue in the industry, and upgraded workers who refuse to go back to assembly or common-labor jobs will constitute pressure groups to break seniority rules providing a particular order of succession to a limited number of jobs.

The elimination and rearrangement of peacetime departments and divisions, which will doubtless take place upon reconversion to automobile production, present little difficulty where the plant-wide seniority unit has been adopted. It will be a matter of placing the man with the longest service on the job he performed in peacetime, or a similar job anywhere in the plant. Some technological changes have been made during the war period, but it is expected by management that job operations will remain substantially the same as they were in the pre-war automobile industry. In anticipation of reconversion problems, local unions are moving in the direction of plant-wide seniority with broad noninterchangeable occupational groups.

It may be that a plant started in the war period will be kept in operation in peacetime, while an old plant of the same company will be shut down. Would old workers have the right to "bump" or displace employees with only wartime seniority in the new plant? If seniority is interplant, the answer would be in the affirmative. If seniority is confined to the plant, the final answer is not covered by the union agreements now in effect. Where the establishment of new plants results in the transfer of major operations from plant to plant the General Motors-U. A. W.-C. I. O. national agreement provides for negotiations in order to adjust seniority rights.

In cases in which existing seniority rules prove impractical, there is nothing to prevent renegotiation to meet new conditions, as has been done during the defense and war period. Seniority is a highly pragmatic matter and what may seem to be a good rule at the time it is adopted may prove unworkable after 6 months' experience. Even provisions of national agreements are sometimes ignored, to meet the needs of local situations. There is no set formula for seniority problems but, given collective bargaining in good faith, workable arrangements can be agreed upon and enforced.

Employment in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants November 1943-June 1944¹

Summary

EMPLOYMENT in the airframe, engine, and propeller industry by June 1944 had decreased nearly 10 percent (131,900) from its all-time peak of 1,330,000 in November 1943.² Airframe plants were responsible for approximately 95 percent of the net decrease. Employment in propeller plants declined only 2,700 and in engine plants 4,300. The Eastern and Western Army Air Forces Procurement Districts, with about half of the employment, were responsible for 80 percent of the net employment decrease.

Despite the 10-percent decrease in employment, however, production in terms of airframe weight delivered (including spare parts) increased by well over one-fifth, from about 80.5 million pounds in November 1943 to 97.8 million pounds in June 1944. The number of units completed declined only 1.4 percent. The increased production in spite of decreasing employment is evidence of increased labor efficiency and greater emphasis on the production of large and heavy bombers.

The proportion of women employed (36 percent) remained almost the same during the 7-month period, showing that women's employment decrease was commensurate with men's. Airframe plants alone employed about three-fourths of the women in the industry.

Accession rates were lower than separation rates throughout the entire period. In June 1944 the separation rate was 7.0 per 100 employees, as compared with an accession rate of 5.3. Quit rates increased during the period from 3.9 to 4.8 per 100 employees, while accession rates decreased from 6.1 to 5.3. The quit rate in engine plants was relatively low in June—3.2 per 100 employees. It was highest (5.3) in airframe plants. The accession as well as separation and quit rates of females were greater than those of males in airframe and engine plants every month from November to June.

Employment Trends

Planes produced and equipped by manufacturers in the United States have been sent to every fighting front in the world, the majority for actual combat, others to transport equipment and personnel, and still others to return wounded servicemen to their respective countries. Probably every allied nation has received part of America's aircraft production either through its own purchasing mission or through Lend-Lease. Both the aircraft industry and the shipbuilding industry have excelled in serving as fighting arms and suppliers of war materials. The necessity to maintain production until the war ends is self-evident.

Employment in the airframe, engine, and propeller industry declined steadily each month from a peak in November 1943 of 1,330,000 to 1,198,100 in June 1944 (table 1). The net decrease of 131,900 during the 7-month period amounted to an average monthly decrease of 18,800 workers, and a percentage decrease over the entire period of nearly 10 percent.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by A. William Buschman.
² The Bureau of Labor Statistics is cooperating with the Army Air Forces in the preparation of current reports on labor requirements, actual employment, labor turnover, absence rates, and shift utilization statistics for all prime contracting airframe, engine, and propeller plants.

TABLE 1.—*Total Employment in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, by District, and Employment Change From November 1943 to June 1944*¹

Type of plant, and district ²	1943		1944						Percent of change, November to June
	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	
Total ³	1,330,008	1,313,284	1,307,953	1,295,791	1,267,657	1,247,182	1,227,724	1,198,097	-9.9
Eastern	397,130	396,341	391,528	389,361	381,714	373,860	364,239	346,797	-12.7
Southeastern	28,122	29,780	33,847	35,473	33,917	33,952	34,503	35,255	+23.4
Central ⁴	262,421	255,647	252,672	248,968	244,068	241,354	240,011	236,400	-8.9
Mid-Central	113,683	114,492	117,702	117,913	116,130	114,908	112,757	113,642	0
Mid-Western	217,780	212,738	213,029	211,223	208,212	206,099	211,333	206,665	-3.7
Western	310,872	304,286	299,175	292,853	283,616	275,009	264,881	256,338	-17.5
Airframe plants	936,466	922,859	913,091	898,865	875,423	856,325	840,351	811,623	-13.3
Eastern	259,691	259,285	253,239	251,132	247,033	240,617	235,479	218,819	-15.4
Southeastern	28,122	29,780	32,105	33,494	31,760	31,832	32,419	35,210	+18.1
Central	104,107	102,335	103,484	90,217	96,428	94,139	93,223	92,530	-11.1
Mid-Central	23,161	23,782	24,638	24,652	23,929	23,182	22,363	22,028	-4.9
Mid-Western	210,513	203,391	200,450	197,517	192,657	191,546	191,986	187,698	-10.8
Western	310,872	304,286	299,175	292,853	283,616	275,009	264,881	256,338	-17.5
Engine plants ⁴	336,128	333,303	337,606	339,833	335,614	334,458	332,149	331,790	-1.3
Eastern	110,403	109,593	110,858	110,577	107,042	105,730	102,292	100,736	-8.8
Southeastern	—	—	1,742	1,979	2,157	2,120	2,084	2,045	(?)
Central	133,246	128,649	124,755	125,484	123,713	123,467	123,243	121,005	-9.2
Mid-Central	85,212	85,414	87,764	88,087	87,147	86,588	85,183	86,037	+1.0
Mid-Western	7,267	9,347	12,579	15,706	15,553	15,553	15,347	21,967	+20.2
Propeller plants ⁴	57,414	57,122	57,164	57,063	56,620	56,399	55,224	54,684	-4.8
Eastern	27,036	27,163	27,431	27,652	27,639	27,513	26,468	26,242	-2.9
Central ⁴	25,068	24,663	24,433	24,257	23,927	23,748	23,545	22,665	+8.8
Mid-Central	5,310	5,296	5,300	5,174	5,064	5,138	5,211	5,577	+5.0

¹ All data relate to the end of month and cover only prime contractors.² Army Air Forces Procurement Districts as of June 1944.³ Propeller data for November and December were adjusted to permit comparability with subsequent months.⁴ No engine plants in the Western District.⁵ No employment reported before January 1944.⁶ No propeller plants in the Southeastern, Mid-Western, and Western Districts.

Airframe plants, accounting for approximately 70 percent of total employment in November 1943, or 936,500 workers, were responsible for about 95 percent of the net decrease; they were reduced to 811,600 workers by June. Employment in engine plants declined by about 4,300 or only 1.3 percent. Actually, peak employment in engine plants was not reached until February 1944 when they employed nearly 339,800 workers. A decrease of 2,700 or 4.8 percent, occurred in propeller plants.

EMPLOYMENT, BY DISTRICTS

The Eastern and Western Districts together represented about half of total peak employment in all airframe, engine, and propeller plants in November 1943 but were responsible for 80 percent of the net decrease from November to June.

	Percent of total employment	
	November	June
Eastern	29.9	28.9
Southeastern	2.1	2.9
Central	19.5	19.7
Mid-Central	8.6	9.5
Mid-Western	16.4	17.5
Western	23.5	21.4
Total	100.0	100.0

District,
Percent
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change,
Novem-
ber to
June

-9.9
-12.7
+25.4
-9.9
0
-3.7
-17.5

-13.3
-15.4
+18.1
-11.1
-4.9
-10.8
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Employment in the Eastern District declined by about 50,300 or 13 percent from 397,100 in November to 346,800 in June 1944. Airframe plants accounted for nearly four-fifths of this decrease and engine plants for most of the remainder. Propeller plants in the Eastern District decreased only slightly in employment from November to June, but have shown a steady decrease since the peak of 27,700 in February. Almost half the workers in propeller plants in June 1944 were in the Eastern District.

Employment in the Western District, consisting entirely of that in airframe plants, declined by 18 percent between November and June, or from 310,900 to 256,300. The Western District had 33 percent of all airframe employees in the United States in November 1943, but accounted for about 44 percent of the decrease between November and June.

A decrease of 26,000 workers or nearly 10 percent of the employment of 262,400 in November was reported for the Central District during the 7-month period. Engine plants accounted for 51 percent of the workers in the area in November and had 47 percent of the decrease between November and June. The number of employees in the Mid-Central District fluctuated irregularly during the 7-month decreasing-employment period, rising from 113,700 in November to 117,900 in February and declining to 113,600 in June 1944.

Though the Mid-Western District as a whole reported a decline of only about 8,100 workers there was a decrease of 22,800 in the airframe plants in this area, part of which was compensated for by an increase in employment for engine plants from 7,300 in November 1943 to 22,000 in June.

The Southeastern District, which is comparatively unimportant in aircraft employment, was the only section reporting an employment increase—from 28,100 to 35,300 (25 percent). Part of the rise, however, occurred because a new engine plant, with about 2,000 workers in June, was introduced into the reporting sample in January.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

The unprecedented employment of women in aircraft plants since Pearl Harbor has enabled manufacturers to meet tremendous war production demands. By November 1943, women comprised about 37 percent of total employment in airframe, engine, and propeller plants (table 2), as compared with less than 5 percent at the time of the attack on Pearl Harbor. Between November and June the ratio of women to the total remained about the same, showing that the decrease in employment over the period was shared about equally by men and women.

Airframe plants employed about three-fourths of all women working in the industry in June 1944. About 324,300 women were employed in airframe plants, 99,900 in engine plants, and 15,300 in propeller plants.

TABLE 2.—*Employment of Women in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, November 1943–June 1944*

Year and month	Total		Airframe plants		Engine plants		Propeller plants	
	Female employees	Female employees as percent of total	Female employees	Female employees as percent of total	Female employees	Female employees as percent of total	Female employees	Female employees as percent of total
1943—November	1,486,947	36.6	370,262	39.5	103,112	30.7	13,573	23.6
December	1,472,998	36.0	358,823	38.9	100,657	30.2	13,518	23.7
1944—January	1,466,292	35.7	351,509	38.5	100,743	29.8	14,040	24.6
February	1,461,074	35.6	346,028	38.5	100,732	29.6	14,314	25.1
March	1,454,412	35.8	339,296	38.8	100,450	29.9	14,666	25.9
April	1,447,724	35.9	332,974	38.9	99,704	29.8	15,046	26.7
May	1,445,725	36.3	331,295	39.4	99,434	29.9	14,996	27.2
June	1,439,503	36.7	324,262	40.0	99,929	30.1	15,312	28.0

¹ Propeller data for November and December were adjusted to permit comparability with subsequent months.

Airplane Production

Although total employment declined 10 percent from November to June, production in terms of airframe weight delivered (including spare parts) increased 22 percent, or from nearly 80.5 million pounds in November to about 97.8 million in June. The peak of 102.4 million was reached in May in spite of a continuing employment decrease since November.

The actual number of completed units accepted (plus spare parts in terms of equivalent units) increased from 10,283 in November 1943 to a peak of 10,875 in March 1944 and declined to 10,643 in May. June 1944 was the first month during the period of decreasing employment in which unit acceptances declined below the November 1943 level.

TABLE 3.—*Units Accepted and Airframe Weight Delivered (Including Spare Parts) November 1943–June 1944*¹

Year and month	Airframe weight delivered, including spare parts	Unit acceptances		
		Total units, including equivalent units of spare parts	Completed units	Spare parts (equivalent units)
1943—November	80,453,000	10,283.1	8,789	1,494.1
December	85,701,300	10,641.2	8,802	1,839.2
1944—January	89,989,000	10,483.7	8,789	1,694.7
February	94,574,000	10,722.0	8,760	1,962.0
March	101,362,500	10,874.6	9,117	1,757.6
April	96,436,500	10,362.0	8,343	2,019.0
May	102,417,500	10,643.0	8,902	1,741.0
June	97,804,000	10,136.1	8,049	2,087.1

¹ Data are from Aircraft Production Board, Aircraft Resources Control Office, Report No. 15: Aircraft Engine and Propeller Production.

The relatively large increase in airframe weight delivered, as compared to the slight decrease in the number of completed units accepted, reflects the increasing emphasis on production of large bombers and cargo planes such as the Flying Fortress, Super-Fortress, and the Skymaster. The sharp decrease in employment at the same time indicates increased labor efficiency.

Labor Turnover and Absenteeism

Tables 4 and 5 show the turnover rates for the whole working force and for men and women separately in each type of plant during the 7-month period under consideration.

TABLE 4.—*Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, November 1943–June 1944*

Year and month	Accessions	Separations				
		Total	Quits	Discharges	Lay-offs	Military and miscellaneous
Total: Airframe, engine, and propeller plants:						
1943—November	6.1	5.4	3.9	0.5	0.5	0.5
December	4.2	4.9	3.5	.5	.4	.5
1944—January	5.4	5.7	4.0	.6	.5	.6
February	4.4	5.1	3.6	.5	.4	.6
March	4.1	6.4	4.2	.6	.8	.8
April	4.1	5.8	4.1	.5	.3	.9
May	4.9	6.4	4.4	.5	.4	1.1
June	5.3	7.0	4.8	.7	.7	.8
Airframe plants:						
1943—November	6.0	5.7	4.2	.6	.4	.5
December	3.8	5.3	3.9	.5	.4	.5
1944—January	5.0	6.1	4.3	.7	.5	.6
February	4.0	5.5	4.0	.5	.5	.5
March	3.8	6.9	4.6	.6	.8	.9
April	3.7	6.1	4.3	.5	.3	1.0
May	4.7	6.8	4.7	.5	.3	1.3
June	5.5	7.8	5.3	.6	.9	1.0
Engine plants:						
1943—November	6.6	3.8	2.6	.5	.2	.5
December	5.8	3.5	2.2	.4	.4	.5
1944—January	7.0	4.3	3.0	.5	.2	.6
February	5.6	4.0	2.6	.5	.4	.5
March	5.0	5.0	2.8	.5	1.0	.7
April	5.3	4.9	3.1	.6	.5	.7
May	5.6	4.9	3.3	.6	.4	.6
June	4.8	5.1	3.2	1.1	.4	.4
Propeller plants:						
1943—November	4.8	6.1	3.8	.4	1.3	.6
December	4.2	5.2	3.9	.3	.6	.4
1944—January	4.7	4.8	3.4	.3	.2	.9
February	4.4	4.3	3.0	.3	.2	.8
March	4.1	4.7	3.4	.4	.1	.8
April	5.1	6.1	4.6	.5	.1	.9
May	4.6	7.3	4.9	.6	1.0	.8
June	5.7	5.6	4.6	.4	.2	.4

TABLE 5.—*Accession, Separation, and Quit Rates, by Sex, in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, November 1943–June 1944*

Year and month	Rate per 100 employees					
	Total accessions		Total separations ¹		Quits	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Total: Airframe, engine, and propeller plants:						
1943—November	4.9	7.3	4.3	7.2	2.8	5.7
December	3.6	4.5	4.0	6.6	2.5	5.4
1944—January	4.6	6.2	4.7	7.3	3.0	5.8
February	3.5	5.5	4.3	6.4	2.8	5.1
March	3.1	5.7	5.7	7.5	3.3	5.8
April	3.2	5.4	5.2	6.8	3.1	5.7
May	3.6	6.8	5.8	7.3	3.3	6.1
June	4.0	7.5	6.1	8.6	3.7	6.5
Airframe plants:						
1943—November	5.1	7.4	4.6	7.5	3.1	5.9
December	3.5	4.1	4.2	7.0	2.7	5.7
1944—January	4.6	5.8	5.1	7.8	3.2	6.2
February	3.3	5.2	4.7	6.7	3.0	5.5
March	3.0	5.1	6.2	8.0	3.6	6.3
April	2.9	5.0	5.5	7.1	3.3	6.0
May	3.6	6.4	6.3	7.6	3.5	6.6
June	4.3	7.3	6.9	9.2	4.2	7.1
Engine plants:						
1943—November	4.3	7.1	3.0	5.5	1.7	4.5
December	3.9	6.7	2.6	4.7	1.4	4.0
1944—January	4.8	7.8	3.5	5.3	2.3	4.5
February	4.1	7.2	3.2	4.9	1.9	3.8
March	3.4	8.0	4.3	5.9	2.1	4.0
April	3.8	7.0	4.2	5.7	2.4	4.2
May	3.4	8.8	4.0	5.7	2.3	4.1
June	3.4	8.0	4.3	6.7	2.5	4.7
Propeller plants:						
1943—November	4.6	5.5	5.6	7.3	3.7	4.0
December	3.9	5.0	5.4	4.4	4.0	3.4
1944—January	3.4	8.5	4.8	4.8	3.2	4.1
February	3.9	5.9	4.4	4.2	2.9	3.3
March	3.2	6.5	4.9	4.2	3.2	3.5
April	4.0	8.1	6.1	6.0	4.3	5.3
May	3.6	7.2	6.8	8.3	4.4	6.1
June	4.4	8.9	5.4	6.3	4.3	6.4

¹ Includes quits, military separation, discharges, lay-offs, and miscellaneous.

The absence rates in each of the three types of plants are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Absence Rates in Airframe, Engine, and Propeller Plants, November 1943–June 1944*

Year and month	Total	Airframe plants	Engine plants	Propeller plants
1943: Rate for year	7.2	7.4	6.6	7.0
November	7.1	7.3	6.8	6.5
December	0.7	10.1	8.7	9.1
1944:				
January	7.1	7.4	6.3	6.5
February	7.5	7.7	6.7	7.5
March	7.1	7.3	6.5	7.0
April	7.9	8.1	7.3	8.4
May	6.4	6.5	6.3	6.5
June	6.1	6.2	6.0	6.2

¹ Coverage through April 1944 limited to direct workers, with rates computed on man-hour basis. Thereafter coverage based on total employment with rates computed on man-shift basis.

State Variations in War Migration and Post-War Demobilization¹

Summary

THE largest domestic post-war problem is recognized to be that of providing employment. In preparing to meet this problem, estimates of wartime population shifts and of the post-war impact of military and industrial demobilization on the different States should prove helpful. Although the present study of the Bureau of Labor Statistics reaches no estimate of post-war unemployment, it does present material that may be useful in making such an estimate on a State, as well as on a National, basis.

The war years have brought a great increase in employment opportunity and extensive shifts in the geographic distribution of employment and its concentration in certain States, which has been reflected in an unparalleled interstate movement of population. Eighteen States and the District of Columbia have experienced a net in-migration during the war years, and 30 States, a net out-migration. Recent estimates of civilian migration by the Bureau of the Census indicate that, between April 1940 and November 1943, the Pacific region gained about $1\frac{1}{4}$ million persons through migration; more than 1.3 million of this centered in the State of California and nearly a quarter of a million in Washington. The East North Central States gained over half a million, with Michigan and Ohio each receiving more than a quarter of a million persons. The region suffering the heaviest population drain through out-migration was the West North Central States, but Arkansas, North Carolina, Kentucky, and Oklahoma each suffered a net out-migration of over a quarter of a million.

Comparison of the wartime changes in total population, by States, with changes during an equivalent period in the 1930-40 decade also reveals some striking differences. Thus, California had nearly 1.2 million persons more, and New York 256,000 persons less, than if the pre-war population changes had been repeated.

The hypothetical total of persons to be demobilized is 14.2 million—8.8 million from the armed forces and 5.4 million from the munitions industries. In some States (e. g., Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Connecticut, Nevada, and the States on the Pacific Coast) the number of demobilized persons will be over 40 percent of total employment in 1940. There will be very nearly this many in New Jersey and Delaware. Even in most of the North Central, Northwestern, and Southeastern States where the problem will be less severe, the demobilized persons will nevertheless total one-fifth to one-fourth of the pre-war number of jobs. Two million persons are likely to be demobilized from a selected group of large Government-financed, privately operated war plants alone, and this group accounts for only about a half of the publicly financed war plants. In some States (Nevada, Kansas, Oklahoma) the number of manufacturing employees likely to

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Post-War Labor Problems by Emile Benoit-Smulyan and Bettina G. Conant with assistance from Maxine T. Anderson. The article is, in part, a revision of two earlier articles: The Relative Severity of Post-War Demobilization by States (in the *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1943, pp. 1-4); and War Distortions and Postwar Demobilization: The Problems of the States (in *State Government* (Chicago), January 1944, pp. 255-259).

be demobilized from this sample of Government-owned war plants is larger than the total employment in manufacturing in 1940. There are nine other States in which it is at least half as large.

The volume of unemployment to which the indicated volume of demobilization will give rise will be affected by the timing of military and of industrial demobilization, which will depend chiefly on military developments, and by the number and timing of voluntary withdrawals from the labor market, and the extent and rapidity of the expansion of production for nonmilitary uses, which will be substantially influenced by public policy.

War Migration

It is clear that the primary post-war problem of finding enough peacetime jobs to take the place of vanished wartime positions will be especially grave for those States that have experienced unusually large population increases. The problems of housing, sanitation, education, and law enforcement will be particularly severe in those areas where wartime provisions have been makeshift, temporary, and inadequate. The presence of large numbers of migrants will introduce elements of uncertainty and, possibly, of discord. On the other hand, wartime losses of population, if they prove permanent, will also have pronounced effects on State levels of income, taxes, relief expenditures, etc.

ABSOLUTE POPULATION CHANGES

Basic to any description of population changes by States is the fact that the total population of the Nation has increased sharply during the war years.² If only the civilian population is considered, this fact is obscured, and the size of problems to be faced by certain States after the war is unduly minimized. In the present study, therefore, members of the armed forces have been included in the population estimates for each State.

In the rapid expansion of population that occurred when large-scale Government expenditures on munitions led to present high levels of employment, the extraordinary national increase of 5½ million was very unevenly distributed among the States. Four States (California, Michigan, Ohio, and Texas) accounted for over half the total growth, whereas 18 States suffered an actual population decline (table 1). It seems clear that wartime population changes reflect, to an extraordinary degree, the influence of actual movement of population from one State to another, in most cases in response to shifts in the distribution of economic opportunities.

NET CIVILIAN MIGRATION

Net civilian migration over any period may be derived by subtracting from the change in total population of each State its total excess

² References in this article to "the war years" or "wartime" are meant to cover the period from the beginning of the defense program in the spring of 1940, up to the latest date for which statistics on some of the key magnitudes are available—namely November 1943 or March 1944, depending on the circumstances.

of births over deaths. If the population increase for any State is less than its excess of births over deaths, the State may be said to have had a net out-migration, i. e., a larger number of persons moved out of the State than moved in. If the population increase is greater than the excess of births over deaths, the State has had a net in-migration.³ For the United States as a whole, the separate totals of net in-migration and of net out-migration would be equal, except for net foreign immigration (i. e., immigration minus emigration), which increases the net in-migration of the States in which the immigrants take up residence without any corresponding increase in the net out-migration of any other State.

The net civilian migration by States during the period, April 1940–November 1943, is shown in table 1 and chart 1. The total volume of net out-migration for all States was 3,422,265, and the total volume of net in-migration was 305,112 more than this, reflecting the influence of national net immigration. In all, there was a net shift of population out of 30 States and into 18 other States and the District of Columbia. The predominant movement was away from the interior of the country and in the direction of both seaboards and of the industrialized Great Lakes region.

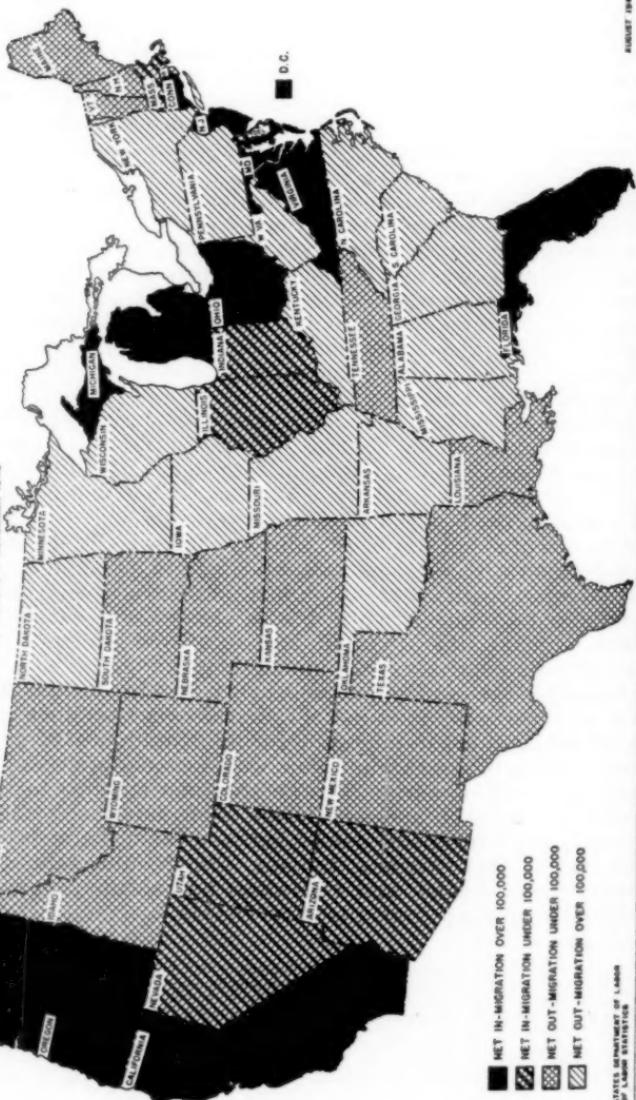
The Pacific region had a net in-migration of approximately 1,752,000. The comparable figure for the East North Central States was 556,000. There was a smaller net in-migration into the South Atlantic States of 130,000 and into New England of 120,000. The West North Central region suffered the heaviest population drain through out-migration—a net exodus of about 841,000. This was followed by the East South Central region with a net out-migration of 644,000, and by the West South Central with 564,000. Somewhat surprisingly, the highly industrialized Middle Atlantic States show a net out-migration of 150,000. Finally, the Mountain States suffered a migration drain of 54,000 of their relatively small population.

Among the States of population influx, California presents a very special problem, with a net in-migration of over 1.3 million, or nearly a third of the total net in-migration for the Nation. Michigan, Washington, Maryland, and Ohio follow with net in-migration of about a quarter of a million each. The District of Columbia had a net in-migration of 205,000, and five States (New Jersey, Florida, Oregon, Virginia, and Connecticut) gained between 125,000 and 187,000 each. Eight other States (Arizona, Indiana, Illinois, Massachusetts, Utah, Nevada, Rhode Island, and Delaware) had smaller amounts of net in-migration, ranging from 19,000 to 79,000.

³Net in-migration is not the same as gross in-migration, which would include all in-migrants whether or not offset by out-migrants. Before the war, gross in-migration appears to have been several times as large as net in-migration in some States. During the war period, however, migration has involved less back-and-forth motion and has had to a greater extent the character of a one-way, and at least quasi permanent, shift of population.

**WARTIME CIVILIAN MIGRATION
BY STATES**

APRIL 1940 — NOVEMBER 1943



AUGUST 1944

TAB

United

Alab.
Arizona
Arkans.
Calif.
Color.
Conn.
Delaw.
Hawaii

District
Florid.
Georg.
Idaho
Illinoi.
Indiana
Iowa

Kansas
Kentuc.
Louis.
Maine
Mary.
Mass.
Mich.
Minnesota
Mississ.
Misso.
Monta.
Nebr.
Nevad.
New J.
New M.
New Y.
North
Ohio
Oklah.
Ore.
Penns.
Rhode
Sout.
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Tenn.
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TABLE I.—Wartime Population Change, and Civilian Migration, by States, April 1, 1940—November 1, 1943¹

State	Estimated change in total population ²	Excess of births over deaths	Civilian migration		Civilian migration as percent of 1940 civilian population
			Net immigration	Net out-migration	
United States	+5,566,698	5,261,586	{ 3,727,377 + 305,112	3,422,265	{ +0.2
Alabama	+71,232	187,598	—	116,366	-4.1
Arizona	+108,663	32,012	76,651	—	+15.4
Arkansas	-92,974	132,398	—	225,372	-11.6
California	+1,92,957	224,386	1,368,571	—	+19.9
Colorado	+22,082	44,841	—	22,759	-2.0
Connecticut	+181,610	54,188	127,422	—	+7.5
Delaware	+27,525	8,142	19,383	—	+7.3
District of Columbia	+227,262	22,011	205,251	—	+31.4
Florida	+286,700	79,956	186,744	—	+9.9
Georgia	+65,405	198,198	—	130,793	-4.2
Idaho	-16,957	27,932	—	44,889	-8.5
Illinois	+287,369	218,807	68,562	—	+7.5
Indiana	+193,762	114,785	78,977	—	+2.3
Iowa	-106,867	85,717	—	192,584	-7.6
Kansas	+761	54,900	—	54,139	-3.0
Kentucky	-109,662	153,014	—	262,676	-9.2
Louisiana	+126,633	145,666	—	19,033	-8.8
Maine	-4,632	25,763	—	30,395	-3.6
Maryland	+305,877	70,498	235,379	—	+13.0
Massachusetts	+131,684	94,652	37,032	—	+8
Michigan	+513,237	232,425	280,812	—	+5.3
Minnesota	-80,226	111,738	—	191,964	-6.9
Mississippi	-50,457	143,737	—	194,194	-8.9
Missouri	-4,815	112,101	—	116,916	-3.1
Montana	-46,433	22,579	—	69,012	-12.3
Nebraska	-55,387	40,907	—	96,294	-7.3
Nevada	+30,996	4,114	26,882	—	+24.4
New Hampshire	-639	11,356	—	11,995	-2.4
New Jersey	+286,219	101,337	184,882	—	+4.4
New Mexico	-3,536	40,826	—	44,362	-8.3
New York	+165,226	288,196	—	222,970	-1.6
North Carolina	-10,746	232,087	—	262,893	-7.4
North Dakota	-68,503	31,927	—	100,430	-15.6
Ohio	+449,823	218,857	230,966	—	+3.3
Oklahoma	-183,161	120,381	—	303,542	-13.0
Oregon	+171,635	33,477	138,158	—	+12.7
Pennsylvania	+179,679	292,061	—	112,382	-1.1
Rhode Island	+47,583	18,105	29,478	—	+4.2
South Carolina	+12,568	150,496	—	137,928	-7.3
South Dakota	-62,627	26,486	—	89,113	-13.8
Tennessee	+102,982	173,825	—	70,843	-2.4
Texas	+350,153	365,853	—	15,700	-2
Utah	+71,482	39,085	32,397	—	+5.9
Vermont	-20,955	10,452	—	31,407	-8.7
Virginia	+300,233	145,534	154,699	—	+5.8
Washington	+302,667	57,736	244,931	—	+14.1
West Virginia	-22,849	116,783	—	139,632	-7.3
Wisconsin	+9,932	112,786	—	102,854	-3.3
Wyoming	+4,187	12,875	—	8,688	-3.5

¹ Source: Bureau of the Census, Release P-44, No. 17.² Estimated civilian population, November 1, 1943, plus net loss (from civilian population) to armed forces between April 1, 1940, and November 1, 1943, minus estimated civilian population, April 1, 1940.³ This figure includes a net interstate migration of 3,422,265, plus a net immigration into the United States of 305,112.⁴ Net immigration into the United States.

Net out-migration was less than 100,000 in 14 States and more than this amount in 16 other States. Of the former group, 9 States (Idaho, New Mexico, Vermont, Maine, Colorado, Louisiana, Texas, New Hampshire, and Wyoming) had only 50,000 or fewer net out-

migrants,⁴ and 5 (Kansas, Tennessee, Montana, South Dakota, and Nebraska) had between 60,000 and 100,000. Of the 16 States where the net out-migration was more severe, 8 (Wisconsin, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Alabama, South Carolina, West Virginia, Georgia, and North Dakota) were within the 100,000 to 140,000 range; Iowa, Minnesota, and Mississippi had between 190,000 and 195,000; New York and Arkansas had about 225,000; and North Carolina, Kentucky, and Oklahoma had more than a quarter of a million.

If these changes are viewed on a relative basis, that is, in relation to the pre-war population, as shown in the last column of table 1, the significance of these population shifts, especially in the case of the less-populous States, is more clearly apparent. California gained about 1 migrant for every 5 persons residing in the State in 1940; the corresponding proportion for Nevada was nearly 1 to every 4, and for the District of Columbia 1 to every 3. Arizona, Florida, Maryland, Oregon, and Washington received net wartime in-migration equaling from 10 to 16 percent of their pre-war population. By contrast, Idaho, Kentucky, Mississippi, New Mexico, and Vermont lost almost a tenth, and Arkansas, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and South Dakota over a tenth, of their 1940 population as migrants to other States.

WARTIME AND PRE-WAR POPULATION CHANGES

As wartime population changes have supervened upon a pattern of change already in existence in the pre-war years, a comparison with pre-war changes is necessary if the changes specifically attributable to the economic effects of the war are to be isolated. A rough comparison of this sort is made in table 2, by relating the population changes in the 43 months following March 1940 to the average population changes in 43 months of the 1930-40 decade, i. e., to 36 percent of the total population change in that decade.

It appears that the war has retarded population growth in 25 States and accelerated it in 23 States and in the District of Columbia. By the beginning of November 1943 California had approximately 1.2 million more residents than she would have had if the average growth of the pre-war decade had been repeated. Michigan had an abnormal wartime accretion of 364,000, and Ohio, of 356,000. For 4 States (Maryland, New Jersey, Virginia, and Washington) the wartime excess ranged between 200,000 and 250,000. Abnormal wartime population gains of between 100,000 and 200,000 were also registered in Illinois (191,000), District of Columbia (164,000), Connecticut (145,000), Indiana (126,000), Oregon (123,000), Texas (138,000), Florida (112,000), and Massachusetts (108,000). Nine other States (Alabama, Arizona, Delaware, Kansas, Louisiana, Nevada, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Utah) have had abnormal wartime gains of less than 100,000. On the other hand, the following States have many fewer persons than they might have had under peacetime conditions: New York (256,000), Kentucky (193,000), Minnesota and Oklahoma (162,000), North Carolina (155,000), Iowa (131,000), Arkansas (127,000), and Mississippi (113,000). In 17 other States, the population is smaller, by 100,000 or less, than it would have been if the pre-war change had been repeated.

⁴ Texas experienced a small net out-migration, along with a large absolute increase in population. This apparent disparity results from the large population base in conjunction with the high birth rate in the State. The excess of births over deaths in Texas was considerably higher than in any other State, even New York with over twice as large a population.

United
Alabama
Arizona
Arkansas
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Florida
Idaho
Illinois
Indiana
Iowa
Kansas
Kentucky
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Mississippi
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Pennsylvania
Rhode Island
South Carolina
Tennessee
Texas
Utah
Vermont
Virginia
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin
Wyoming

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TABLE 2.—Wartime and Pre-War Population Changes, by States

State	Estimated total wartime population change, April 1940—November 1943 ¹	Average pre-war population change, 43 months of 1930-40 decade	Difference between wartime population change over average pre-war population change during 43 months
United States	+5,566,698	+3,201,921	+2,364,777
Alabama	+71,232	+67,217	+4,015
Arizona	+108,663	+22,928	+85,735
Arkansas	-92,974	+34,166	-127,140
California	+1,592,957	+442,849	+1,150,108
Colorado	+22,082	+31,502	-9,420
Connecticut	+181,610	+36,842	+144,768
Delaware	+27,525	+10,125	+17,400
District of Columbia	+227,262	+63,440	+163,822
Florida	+266,700	+154,513	+112,187
Georgia	+65,405	+77,478	-12,073
Idaho	-16,957	+28,743	-45,700
Illinois	+287,369	+95,971	+191,398
Indiana	+193,762	+68,145	+125,617
Iowa	-106,867	+24,238	-131,105
Kansas	+761	-28,790	+29,551
Kentucky	-109,662	+83,174	-192,836
Louisiana	+126,633	+94,423	+32,210
Maine	-4,632	+17,929	-22,561
Maryland	+305,877	+68,298	+237,579
Massachusetts	+131,684	+24,159	+107,525
Michigan	+513,237	+148,961	+364,276
Minnesota	-80,226	+82,205	-162,431
Mississippi	-50,457	+62,631	-113,888
Missouri	-4,815	+55,907	-60,722
Montana	-46,433	+7,866	-54,299
Nebraska	-55,387	-22,366	-33,021
Nevada	+30,996	+6,908	+24,088
New Hampshire	-639	+9,443	-10,082
New Jersey	+286,219	+42,779	+243,440
New Mexico	-3,536	+39,060	-42,506
New York	+65,226	+320,787	-255,561
North Carolina	-10,746	+144,485	-155,231
North Dakota	-68,503	-14,008	-54,495
Ohio	+449,823	+93,929	+355,894
Oklahoma	-183,161	-21,458	-161,703
Oregon	+171,635	+48,923	+122,712
Pennsylvania	+179,679	+96,779	+82,900
Rhode Island	+47,583	+9,306	+38,277
South Carolina	+12,568	+57,974	-45,406
South Dakota	-62,627	-17,960	-44,667
Tennessee	+102,982	+107,743	-4,761
Texas	+350,153	+212,439	+137,714
Utah	+71,482	+15,287	+56,195
Vermont	-20,955	-137	-20,818
Virginia	+300,233	+92,132	+208,101
Washington	+302,667	+62,206	+240,461
West Virginia	-22,849	+62,197	-85,046
Wisconsin	+9,932	+71,489	-61,557
Wyoming	+4,187	+9,064	-4,877

¹ Source: Bureau of the Census, Release P-44, No. 17.

Unless the States with abnormal wartime accretions can provide peacetime economic opportunities comparable in magnitude to those created by the war demand, they will find themselves after the war with a greatly overexpanded population. Although to some extent such States can count on a reversal of the wartime pattern of interstate migration, it would be dangerous to rely too strongly on such expectations. It should not be forgotten that while wartime migrations occurred in response to strong positive incentives, such as the definite assurance of jobs or higher wages, a reverse movement after

the war might have to depend chiefly on the negative stimulus of unemployment. The history of "depressed areas" in many countries demonstrates that unemployment is often an insufficient spur to migration, unless coupled with fairly definite prospects of employment elsewhere. At best, such a reverse migration would be a painful process, and it would probably require either an increased measure of Federal intervention or a much higher degree of coordination between States in the formulation of mutually acceptable policies than has hitherto been achieved in times of peace. In particular, the coordination of employment information and of job placement would be essential, and a greater uniformity in standards of unemployment compensation, public relief, public health, and education would be most helpful.

Extent of Demobilization

An attempt was made to measure the effect on each State of a hypothetical volume of demobilization from the armed services and from munitions manufacturing. For purposes of the study "demobilized persons" were assumed to include (1) persons to be released from the armed services as a result of a reduction from the estimated peak strength of 11.3 million, and (2) persons to be released from war production as a result of a reduction in the combined total manufacturing employment of a selected group of munitions industries below the March 1944 level. Military demobilization as here defined will presumably not begin until the first part of the war is ended, but industrial demobilization has already begun, and may be far advanced before the end of the war on all fronts.

In table 3, the hypothetical number of servicemen to be demobilized was taken as 8.8 million, in order to allow for the retention of 2.5 million in the armed forces during the early post-war years.⁵ The latter figure is based merely on a consensus of widely quoted opinions. The 8.8 million demobilized servicemen were distributed among the States in proportion to each State's contribution to the total number of inductions, as reflected by Selective Service local board inventories through March 1944.

It seems most likely that, as a rule, servicemen will be discharged in, or will at first return to, the States from which they were inducted,⁶ and that the demobilized workers will constitute a problem in the first instance for the States in which they held wartime jobs, either by seeking new jobs, drawing unemployment compensation, requiring relocation assistance, or in other ways.

The estimated 5.4 million war workers to be demobilized is based on the hypothesis of a cutback, at least temporarily, to 1940 State employment levels in 12 "munitions industries" comprising all or part of 12 major manufacturing-industry groups,⁷ that have been greatly

⁵ No allowance need be made for military casualties, since it is assumed that there will be 11.3 million effectives in the armed services at the time demobilization begins.

⁶ This seems to be the most realistic, as well as the most convenient, hypothesis in the present state of our knowledge. Most servicemen tried to arrange their induction as near their family's place of residence as possible and will wish to rejoin their families first. Individual deviations from this pattern may to a considerable degree offset one another, e. g., persons inducted from Texas who return to other States may be offset by persons inducted from other States who return to Texas.

⁷ Munitions industries include all, or almost all, of the following major industry groups: Ordnance and accessories; selected chemicals; rubber products; iron and steel (except tin cans and tinware); transportation equipment, except automobiles; nonferrous metals; electrical machinery; machinery, except electrical; and automobiles and automobile equipment. In the following major industry groups, only the specified component industries in parentheses are included in the munitions industry classification: Stone, clay and glass products (abrasives); products of petroleum and coal (coke and byproducts); and miscellaneous manufacturing (professional and scientific instruments, photographic apparatus, and optical goods).

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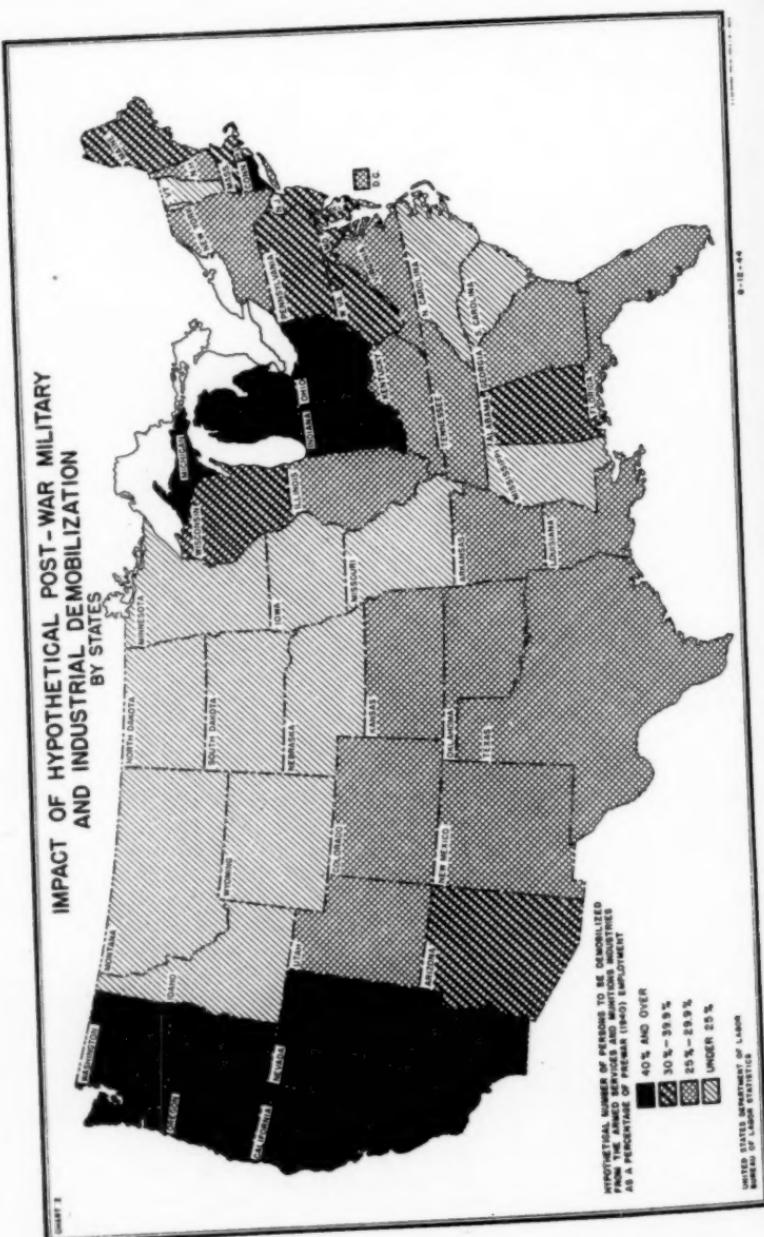
TABLE 3.—*Hypothetical Military and Industrial Demobilization, in Relation to Pre-war Employment, by States*

State	Total employment, April 1940 (in thousands) ¹	Demobilized persons (in thousands)			Demobilized persons as percent of 1940 employment
		Armed forces	Manufacturing employees	Total	
United States	45,106.0	8,800.0	5,436.0	14,236.0	31.5
Alabama	893.8	193.6	83.0	276.6	30.9
Arizona	150.2	35.2	13.2	48.4	32.2
Arkansas	583.9	132.0	19.4	151.4	25.9
California	2,525.3	492.8	591.6	1,084.4	42.9
Colorado	349.7	70.4	22.8	93.2	26.7
Connecticut	680.5	123.2	187.8	311.0	45.7
Delaware	102.6	17.6	21.3	38.9	37.9
District of Columbia	308.9	61.6	16.4	78.0	25.3
Florida	683.3	132.0	58.0	190.0	27.8
Georgia	1,107.4	220.0	57.0	277.0	25.0
Idaho	158.6	35.2	.8	36.0	22.7
Illinois	2,874.4	519.2	339.2	858.4	29.9
Indiana	1,151.7	228.8	249.9	478.7	41.6
Iowa	862.8	149.6	30.7	186.3	21.6
Kansas	583.8	105.6	56.4	162.0	27.7
Kentucky	847.6	184.8	51.1	235.9	27.8
Louisiana	771.1	167.2	60.8	228.0	29.6
Maine	279.0	52.8	36.5	89.3	32.0
Maryland	690.9	132.0	91.1	223.1	32.3
Massachusetts	1,534.8	264.0	228.8	492.8	32.1
Michigan	1,825.0	369.6	430.4	800.0	43.8
Minnesota	981.5	176.0	52.9	228.9	24.6
Mississippi	727.5	140.8	15.7	156.5	21.5
Missouri	1,297.1	237.6	72.1	309.7	23.9
Montana	185.6	35.2	1.8	37.0	19.9
Nebraska	433.4	79.2	26.8	106.0	24.5
Nevada	41.5	8.8	8.2	17.0	41.0
New Hampshire	176.0	26.4	18.7	45.1	25.6
New Jersey	1,569.1	290.4	330.9	621.3	39.6
New Mexico	140.3	35.2	(?)	35.2	25.1
New York	4,974.5	880.0	533.0	1,413.0	28.4
North Carolina	1,208.7	255.2	23.5	278.7	23.1
North Dakota	200.4	44.0	(?)	44.0	22.0
Ohio	2,345.0	457.6	479.8	937.4	40.0
Oklahoma	658.7	140.8	43.8	184.6	28.0
Oregon	389.8	70.4	86.2	156.6	40.2
Pennsylvania	3,230.2	668.8	376.1	1,044.9	32.3
Rhode Island	264.7	44.0	52.5	96.5	36.5
South Carolina	661.1	140.8	20.7	161.5	24.4
South Dakota	204.5	35.2	(?)	35.2	17.2
Tennessee	941.7	202.4	56.6	259.0	27.5
Texas	2,138.4	440.0	172.2	612.2	28.6
Utah	148.9	35.2	3.0	38.2	25.7
Vermont	125.1	17.6	10.2	27.8	22.2
Virginia	933.1	193.6	70.3	263.9	28.3
Washington	607.7	114.4	171.2	285.6	47.0
West Virginia	519.1	132.0	23.9	155.9	30.0
Wisconsin	1,060.8	193.6	133.7	327.3	30.9
Wyoming	86.6	17.6	(?)	17.6	20.3

¹ From 1940 Census of Population.² Less than 100 persons.

expanded during the war, and that are now dependent in very large part upon a war-induced demand.⁸ A temporary cutback to 1940 levels or lower is bound to occur in these industries unless (a) war-induced orders are replaced by orders for civilian use automatically and instantaneously and in equivalent volume, and (b) work pro-

⁸ In these industries it is not only the increase in employment since 1940 that is now dependent upon war orders, but a large part of the employment that was in 1940 producing goods for civilian markets as well.



ceeds on these new orders without any interruptions caused by such factors as settlement of war contracts, clearance of war inventories and machines from plants, retooling and physical reconversion where necessary, financing, rebuilding of sales force, etc., not to speak of temporary lack of confidence in adequacy of the markets.⁹

The relative severity of the impact of demobilization cannot be measured by the absolute number of persons to be demobilized (table 3), since a large or populous State can probably absorb a larger number of demobilized persons with less strain than can a smaller, more thinly populated State. Chief consideration should therefore be given to the number of demobilized persons in relation to a State's pre-war capacity to provide employment, as shown in the last column of table 3 and in chart 2.

Along the West Coast and in Nevada, in Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio, and in Connecticut it is estimated that there will be 4 or more demobilized servicemen and war workers for every 10 persons employed in 1940, and very nearly that many in New Jersey and Delaware. There will be more than 3 demobilized persons to every 10 pre-war jobs in Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Alabama, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Arizona. Even in most of the North Central and Northwest States, and in some of the Southeastern States where the problem will be less severe, the demobilized persons will nevertheless total one-fifth to one-fourth of the pre-war number of jobs. Moreover, within these, as well as other States, particular communities will face readjustments of much greater severity than is indicated by the State average.

DEMOBILIZATION FROM GOVERNMENT-OWNED WAR PLANTS

One category of manufacturing employment that is of special interest, in estimating the volume of industrial demobilization, is employment in Government-owned war plants. Here, the likelihood of at least temporary discontinuance of employment at the end of the war is especially acute. Government investment in new war production facilities has usually been necessary in those cases where post-war profitability was doubtful, either because of the specialized nature of the equipment or because of uncertainty as to the peacetime demand for the product. To the extent that these doubts still exist, there will be hesitation in shifting into peacetime production. There will also be legal and financial problems involved in transferring these plants to private ownership. In many cases the present operators have options that may result in the interruption of production for a period of from 3 to 6 months while bargaining over the purchase of the plant.

Although data on the total employment in Government-owned war plants are not available, a recent study covers the distribution of approximately 2 million manufacturing employees in the new, large plants (each valued at half a million dollars or over) in which the Government has borne at least 95 percent of the cost, and which are privately operated. The data on manufacturing employment in

⁹ It is not implied that the cutbacks to a 1940 level of employment will necessarily occur in one single stage, or simultaneously in the different industries, or that the transition from war-induced orders to orders for civilian use will always involve a change in the type of work done.

TABLE 4.—*Manufacturing Employment and Public Investment in Selected Government-Owned, Privately Operated War Plants, by States, September 1943*

State	Manufacturing employment		Public investment	
	Number	Percent of estimated total manufacturing employment, April 1940	Amount (in millions) ¹	Percent of total public investment in war industrial facilities ²
United States	2,073,000	20.0	\$7,988.6	54.6
Alabama	38,900	26.5	239.1	63.3
Arizona	6,900	84.1	55.2	56.7
Arkansas	13,100	25.5	161.3	71.8
California	208,700	74.0	427.1	50.3
Colorado	17,400	52.3	60.7	48.4
Connecticut	21,000	6.9	74.6	32.6
Delaware	10,900	34.9	14.8	69.8
Florida	50,200	70.9	42.8	71.9
Georgia	44,900	23.8	94.7	88.3
Illinois	102,300	12.3	820.4	72.6
Indiana	103,800	29.1	549.1	68.3
Iowa	21,600	23.2	92.7	60.2
Kansas	54,600	114.0	298.0	95.8
Kentucky	12,700	15.0	128.0	59.6
Louisiana	34,300	36.0	198.8	60.0
Maine	27,900	30.4	24.2	67.4
Maryland	65,300	35.5	59.0	29.3
Massachusetts	46,700	8.3	101.3	33.1
Michigan	100,400	14.1	413.0	38.8
Minnesota	23,900	22.4	94.4	37.9
Mississippi	11,800	20.4	29.6	64.6
Missouri	87,100	36.6	449.8	94.2
Nebraska	14,400	50.3	85.7	83.0
Nevada	5,700	475.0	132.9	93.3
New Jersey	44,300	7.3	66.8	13.9
New Mexico	400	9.1	2.6	63.4
New York	129,500	9.9	349.4	35.0
North Carolina	23,800	7.6	42.6	91.0
Ohio	155,100	19.8	730.4	64.7
Oklahoma	44,200	103.5	166.9	78.4
Oregon	72,600	93.7	63.9	75.2
Pennsylvania	81,000	7.6	365.9	31.6
Rhode Island	16,700	14.2	25.9	34.9
South Carolina	2,600	2.0	4.5	9.9
Tennessee	20,800	13.0	242.8	72.0
Texas	132,200	71.4	538.1	60.1
Utah	11,700	75.5	44.4	17.3
Virginia	9,900	6.1	102.3	49.1
Washington	72,600	61.3	177.0	62.1
West Virginia	7,700	8.3	197.2	77.2
Wisconsin	33,400	12.7	209.9	56.8
Wyoming			2.7	18.2

¹ Includes 14 nonmanufacturing plants not included in figures on manufacturing employment and accounting for 1 percent of total employment for the sample.

² Data on the State distribution of publicly-financed war industrial facilities cumulative through November 1943 from War Production Board, Summary of War Supply and Facility Contracts, February 5, 1944.

these plants are reproduced in the first column of table 4.¹⁰ It will be noted that California has almost 300,000 persons employed in these plants, and Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New York, Ohio, and Texas, over 100,000 each.

Comparison of these figures with total employment in manufacturing before the war, i. e., in April 1940, indicates that in Kansas and in

¹⁰ See Employment in Government-Owned, Privately Operated New War Plants (in *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1944, pp. 39-46), for a more detailed description of the sample, and additional data. Figures on employment in the present article exclude, while those on investment include, 14 nonmanufacturing plants covered in the article cited. Employment in these 14 plants constitutes about 1 percent of total employment in the sample.

Oklahoma, for example, the number of persons working in these large Government-owned war plants is larger than the total number of persons working in manufacturing before the war, and that in Nevada it is considerably more than four times as large. In nine other States it is at least half as large or more. Moreover, the plants covered in this sample account for only about half of the total Government investment in war facilities. In interpreting the value of the Government investment in these plants and the ratio of this investment to total value of publicly financed war industrial facilities in each State, shown in table 4, it should be remembered that the amount of employment per dollar of public investment is higher in some industries (e. g., airplane assembly) than in others (e. g., chemicals and metals), and that smaller plants, or plants financed to a less degree by the Government, may perhaps be more readily and more rapidly returned to peacetime production.

DEMOBILIZATION IN FIELDS OTHER THAN MANUFACTURING

The foregoing estimates include only persons to be demobilized from the munitions manufacturing industries, and from the armed services. They do not include workers in Government service, in trade, and in transportation and public utilities, whose jobs are directly or indirectly connected with the war. Many of these workers will also face a possible loss of employment as the war agencies are disbanded, the military camps and depots are shut down or put on a stand-by basis, and the war-boom communities lose at least a part of their wartime accretions in population.

Between April 1940 and March 1944 there occurred an estimated national increase of 200,000 workers in trade, 776,000 in transportation and public utilities, and 1,788,000 in Government service.¹¹ Employment gains in these specific components, by States, are unfortunately not obtainable, but State estimates of increases in total nonmanufacturing, nonagricultural employment are available. The designated increases are estimated at 240,000 in California, 192,000 in Texas, 133,000 in the District of Columbia, 127,000 in Illinois and in Oregon, 122,000 in Virginia, 121,000 in Nebraska, 118,000 in Minnesota, 117,000 in Pennsylvania, and 111,000 in Ohio, with smaller increases in most of the other States. Since national levels of employment in mining, construction, finance, services, and miscellaneous industries have declined, these figures understate, if anything, the gains in the remaining nonmanufacturing, nonagricultural components—trade, transportation and public utilities, and Government.

It is not yet possible, however, to estimate the volume of post-war demobilization to which these wartime increases in nonmanufacturing, nonagricultural employment will give rise. A reduction to 1940 levels of employment in these components, even temporarily, cannot be assumed except in a very few communities that are heavily dependent upon temporary military posts or upon entirely nonconvertible war industries. Such an estimate would, therefore, require a detailed

¹¹ This, however, includes about 300,000 workers in Government arsenals, navy yards, etc., already covered in the estimate of the number of persons to be demobilized from manufacturing.

inspection of the individual post-war employment prospects of all the chief communities in which significant wartime expansion has occurred.¹²

Demobilization and Unemployment

The foregoing demobilization estimate should not be taken as an estimate of unemployment, since the volume of demobilization is only one of the factors determining post-war unemployment in the demobilization period. The other chief factors are the volume of voluntary withdrawals from the labor market, the number of new jobs created, and the timing of demobilization, of withdrawals, and of the creation of new jobs. Some of these factors may be influenced by public policy.

The most important groups likely to withdraw from the labor market voluntarily are young persons of school or college age, older persons past the normal age of retirement, and some women workers who will not wish to continue working under peacetime conditions. The number of temporary withdrawals among younger persons will be influenced by public policy with regard to minimal educational requirements, by the quality and type of the instruction afforded—itself to some degree a reflection of the funds devoted to education—and by the financial assistance given to those capable of benefiting by further education but unable to afford it. Retirement of the overaged may be influenced to some extent by the liberality of the retirement and survivors' allowances provided by the social-security system. Voluntary retirement of women will be largely influenced by whether or not the Government takes vigorous action to maintain employment and to assure that sufficient employment will be available in the future. If widespread unemployment is anticipated, many of the women who plan ultimately to withdraw from the labor market will be likely to try to safeguard the family income by holding their jobs as long as possible. It should be noted that the timing of withdrawals of all types is of great strategic importance. If measures are to be taken that will facilitate and encourage temporary or permanent withdrawals from the labor market on a voluntary basis, it is highly desirable that they be taken soon enough to be effective at the time when the problem of transitional or "reconversion" unemployment will be most acute.

The rapidity with which the troops are returned from overseas and the speed with which the armament program is reduced will obviously be most important factors in determining the gravity of the unemployment problem. These factors, however, will depend chiefly on the military progress of the war. Delays in the repatriation of the armed forces or in the cancellation of war contracts, simply for the purpose of minimizing unemployment, are hardly to be expected, or desired.

¹² Data for such an estimate are being assembled in a series of individual "area studies" on individual communities, being prepared in the Post-War Labor Problems Division of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Reports have already been published on 28 areas: Pittsburgh, Pa., Labette County, Kans., 5 western Kentucky counties, Mayes County, Okla., Windsor County, Vt., Clark County, Nev., Gibson County, Tenn., Newport, R. I., Huntsville, Ala., Detroit, Mich., Louisville Ky., Sauk County, Wis., Muscle Shoals, Ala., Waco, Tex., Bath, Maine, Tulsa, Okla., Harford County, Md., Pascagoula, Miss., Kansas City, Mo.-Kans., Manitowoc, Wis., Des Moines, Iowa, Dallas-Fort Worth, Tex., Los Angeles, Calif., Talladega County, Ala., Birmingham, Ala., Wilmington, N. C., Providence, R. I., and 5 Virginia coal-mining counties. Reports on 33 other areas are being currently prepared.

The significance of the creation of new peacetime jobs in reducing the burden of transitional unemployment scarcely requires comment. Not only the number of jobs to be created, but their timing, will be of the utmost importance. The volume of unemployment created by a given volume of demobilization will depend to a large degree upon the decisions of public policy with regard to the following questions: (1) Will reconversion be allowed to get under way as soon as surplus materials and manpower are available, even if, by introducing new firms, or strengthening some firms as against others, this upsets pre-war relationships within the industries affected? (2) Will prompt and energetic measures be taken for clearance of war inventories and machinery from war plants? (3) Will adequate funds be made available for reconversion, or expansion of peacetime production, for both small and large, new and old, businesses? (4) Will Government-owned war plants be rapidly returned to civilian production—if necessary, on a lease basis and, if necessary, before final arrangements for their ultimate disposition have been completed? (5) Will plans for the backlog of normal public works interrupted by the war be in a sufficient state of readiness, both from an engineering and from a legal and financial viewpoint, to exploit to the full the job-giving potentialities of the construction industry? (6) Will the Government provide such explicit assurances that high levels of employment and consumption will be maintained, as to produce a widespread confidence in the adequacy of the future demand for the goods and services that industry is able to produce?

In turn, the volume of unemployment allowed to develop during the demobilization period will have important effects on the level of employment readily attainable over a longer period. Serious transitional unemployment would encourage a policy of retrenchment and watchful waiting on the part of both consumers and investors, thereby greatly increasing the volume of economic activity that would have to be directly generated by Government if high levels of employment were to be regained.

Employment and Labor Conditions

Labor Conditions in Norway¹

Summary

OF Norway's total population of 2,814,194 in 1930, 41.5 percent were gainfully occupied. About one-third of the total number of wage earners were engaged in industry, mining, and quarrying.

Unemployment during the 1930's rose to a high point in 1934 but thereafter decreased steadily until the outbreak of the war. The majority of placements were negotiated through 48 public employment offices.

Prior to the war, wages were fixed by nation-wide collective bargaining. Under the German occupation they are largely fixed by the State. Average money wages per day increased from 11.75 kroner (\$3.15)² in 1929 to 15.16 kroner (\$4.06) in 1940. During the same period the index of real wages rose from 100 to 106. Under the Nazis, real wages had, to April 1943, decreased about 50 percent. Wage deductions for social insurance and taxes ranged from 8 to 17 percent. The peacetime 48-hour week, with minimum overtime pay of 25 percent above regular wages, was increased under the Germans, ranging from 54 to as high as 80 hours. Overtime could still be claimed, but was of little avail on German military projects.

Before the German occupation, labor unions played an important role in Norway's industrial organization. In 1939, there were 33 national unions with a membership of 352,479. After the occupation of the country by the Germans, the leadership of the Federation of Labor was replaced, but all efforts to reorganize the unions on the German Labor Front pattern have failed.

Norwegian labor laws provided for compulsory conciliation, a Labor Court, and a court to deal with boycotts. When the disputing parties could not reach an agreement, the dispute was referred to a mediator. Under the Nazis, the powers of the mediator were greatly increased.

Norway had an extensive cooperative movement in which the consumers' store cooperatives and the agricultural marketing associations were the most important. There were also small numbers of housing associations and fishermen's cooperatives. Prior to the German invasion, cooperatives numbered almost 4,000 and had more than 500,000 members.

Norway's system of social insurance included compulsory sickness insurance, covering all employed persons over 15 years of age; old-age insurance, entitling all Norwegians over 70 to a pension; unemployment insurance, providing for benefits to those liable to sickness insurance; and workmen's compensation for industrial, construction, and transportation workers, fishermen, and seamen.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by John P. Umbach and James R. Mock.

² Conversions made at rate of krone=26.8 cents.

Historical Background

In the physical geography of Norway—a country about twice the size of the New England States—lies the chief explanation of the economic and political life of the nation. As the country is predominantly coastal, with a heavily wooded mountainous hinterland, an appreciable portion of the population earns a living by activities connected with the sea. Those activities include employment in the mercantile marine, fishing and sealing, or in industries allied to fishing and hunting, such as the processing of fish products, the marketing of fish, and canning. The mountainous character of the interior causes the streams to be short, swift, and numerous. From those streams is derived the motive power for Norwegian industry. As a result the industries are situated along water courses, not concentrated in towns to the extent found in many other countries. Only 3.6 percent of the land is under cultivation, while 24.2 percent is covered with forest. The arable soil is found largely in narrow strips in valleys and around fjords and lakes. Thus, the maritime worker, the industrial laborer, and the farm worker live in the same regions and have a common economic and political outlook.

Since 1903—2 years before Norway separated from Sweden—these workers have had their own political party, the Labor Party, and have been represented by it in the Storting (Parliament). Beginning with 1925, the Labor Party consistently polled the greatest percentage of votes at the Storting elections. During the depression period the agricultural crisis, caused by a fall in prices in conjunction with movements in the value of the krone, brought about a political alliance between the Agrarian and the Labor Parties in the spring of 1935, and resulted in the formation of a Labor Government which was still in power when the Germans overcame Norway in 1940.

Following the Nazi invasion, King Haakon and his Government fled to London. The invaders made Major Vidkun Quisling the Nazi puppet Prime Minister of Norway, abolished the Norwegian monarchy and Parliament, and created a new National Council (Riksraad) under Quisling's supervision. All political parties with the exception of the (Nazi) Nasjonal Samling were disbanded, and a German-type National Socialist system was introduced.

Industrial Distribution of the Population

The latest information on the industrial distribution of the gainfully occupied portion of the population of Norway is that contained in the 1930 Norwegian census, which gave a total population of 2,814,194 for that year,³ 1,167,514 of these (41.5 percent) being gainfully occupied. Of the persons gainfully occupied, 336,364 (28.8 percent) were engaged in agriculture and forestry, but only 182,367 of this group were wage earners, the majority of whom were working in forestry. The largest proportion of the total number of wage earners, 239,879 (35.0 percent) was found in industry, mining, and quarrying. The complete distribution of gainfully occupied persons by industrial groups is given in table 1.

³ In 1938, the total population of Norway was 2,921,362.

TABLE 1.—*Industrial Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Persons in Norway, 1930*¹

Occupational group	Total	Employers and independent workers	Salaried employees	Wage earners (including unpaid family workers)
All groups	1,167,514	323,217	158,484	684,883
Agriculture and forestry	336,364	149,948	4,049	182,367
Fishing	75,977	63,254	945	11,778
Industry, mining, and quarrying	309,813	52,552	17,382	239,879
Transportation	108,422	9,316	27,884	71,222
Commerce	145,839	42,329	67,286	36,224
Public administration, national defense	18,386	1,132	11,131	6,123
Liberal professions	47,861	4,683	29,347	13,831
Domestic service	120,344	—	—	120,344
Occupations insufficiently described	3,548	3	460	3,085
Occupations unknown	960	—	—	—

¹ Data are from International Labor Office, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Persons in Norway in Individual Industries and Trades, 1930*¹

Industry or trade	Gainfully occupied persons	Industry or trade	Gainfully occupied persons
Industry	309,813	Trade	145,839
Metal industry	50,438	Commerce	109,580
Timber and woodworking	34,518	Banks, insurance, etc.	16,799
Paper	19,838	Hotels and restaurants	19,460
Clothing, etc.	49,096	Transportation	108,422
Food and luxury articles	31,876	Marine	40,593
Building and constructional activities	52,693	Ordinary land transportation	31,808
Electro-chemical industry	10,156	Railways, tramways	15,379
Stone quarrying, etc.	12,806	Postal and telegraph services, etc.	12,334
Other	48,392	Pilot, light, and harbor services	2,218

¹ Data are from Norway Yearbook (Oslo, 1938).

As table 1 indicates, agriculture is the leading source of employment in Norway. The country has an area of about 124,038 square miles, exclusive of Spitzbergen (about 30,752 square miles). The total area of land under cultivation in 1936 amounted to 2,074,885 acres, of which 720,219 acres was arable land and 1,815,913 meadow. The leading agricultural products in the order of their importance are oats, barley, wheat, rye, and potatoes. The farms are mostly of small size, the average area of arable land and meadow on the registered farms being 9.6 acres. Of the 264,784 registered farms in the entire country, 92.1 percent had less than 24.7 acres of cultivated land and meadow. Of the total land area of the country, 25 percent is productive woodland.

More than 25 percent of the entire working population was engaged in industry in 1936. Numerous industries were founded on the nation's resources in the forests, ore deposits, stone quarries and minerals, coastal fisheries, and waterpower. The main part of the forest resources is utilized by the pulp and paper industries. In 1938, there were 60 mechanical pulp mills, 6 sulphate mills, and 19 sulphite mills, besides a considerable number of paper and cardboard

mills. The mining industry is scattered over the entire country. Its output, in metric tons, of the various mining products was as follows: Iron ore 846,809, copper ore 27,230, sulphur pyrites 1,031,825, silver ore 16,021, nickel ore 33,331, and other minerals 84,325. The timber and woodworking industry is found chiefly in the southeastern part of Norway, the oil and fat industry in the coastal regions, and the stone industry in southeastern Norway.

Although the greater numbers of the industrial workers are in the districts of Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger, and Trondheim, a very high percentage of the industrial population lives in the country, and this percentage has increased in recent years. A striking characteristic of the Norwegian industrial workers is that a substantial part (about a fifth) have a secondary occupation, frequently connected with agriculture, fishing, or hunting.

Employment Conditions

SITUATION DURING THE DEPRESSION

The serious and protracted economic depression which followed the relatively brief period of prosperity after World War I, also created an unparalleled amount of unemployment in Norway. While there were periods with relatively favorable employment figures (1923-25, 1929-30, and 1936-37), employment dropped very low in 1921, 1926-27, and 1932-34.

The seriousness of the unemployment problem led to measures by the State and municipalities to alleviate the distress. Under a law of 1906 and subsequent modifications, the State and municipalities made grants to the unemployment funds of the trade-unions, the combined grants amounting to one-half of the sum paid out in benefits. During the early years of the depression, extraordinary grants were made to the unemployment funds, but they were discontinued in 1923. In 1922, municipal unemployment grants with State assistance were also paid to nonparticipants in the trade-union unemployment funds, but when State support was withdrawn in 1924 this form of unemployment assistance gradually ceased.

Various other measures were also introduced, as, for example, training courses for the unemployed, travel allowances in the case of commencing work in other localities, health insurance during unemployment, and others. However, stress was laid upon securing temporary employment for the unemployed through emergency and relief works. State subsidies of 2.00-2.50 kroner per completed day's work were also granted to municipalities to assist them in relief works and other measures. Furthermore, public works, such as roads, railways, and harbors were undertaken by the Provinces.

During the 16 years, 1920-21 to 1936-37, the State and municipalities together used about 300 million kroner for extraordinary unemployment measures, but of this comparatively large sum, less than 12 millions were spent on unemployment benefits. The remainder, about 96 percent, was spent on actual public works.

Norwegian index numbers of employment are based on 1935 and begin with that year. As the statement below indicates, the employment index rose steadily after 1935 and reached its highest level in

1939, when the annual average was 116. For 1940, the year of the invasion by Germany, the average index dropped to 113.

	<i>Index¹</i>		<i>Index¹</i>
1935.....	100	1940.....	113
1936.....	103	March.....	110
1937.....	110	June.....	100
1938.....	110	September.....	123
1939.....	116	December.....	118
		1941:	
		March.....	108
		June.....	120

¹ Data are from International Labor Office, *Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942*.

After the occupation of Norway by Germany in 1940, unemployment fell considerably, although in March 1942, the unemployed were still reported to amount to about 14,000. This number was further reduced by the employment of Norwegian labor for German fortifications and similar work in Norway in 1942, and by the 1943 conscription of both male and female workers to serve in the German Labor Service.

Foreign workers.—The employment of foreign workers in Norway was restricted by acts of 1927 and 1932. Special employment permits had to be secured by aliens before they could enter the country. Every alien had to report to the police authorities whenever he changed his residence or moved to another commune. As a rule, employment permits were granted only if there was a shortage of labor in the applicant's occupation.

Up to 1940, the year of Norway's occupation by Germany, foreign labor played only an insignificant role in Norwegian employment. Following the occupation, this was changed completely by the employment of foreign workers by the German "Todt" (military construction) organization. Although it was not possible to give exact figures on the number of foreign workers, most of whom were prisoners of war, there was evidence of a continuous increase after the Germans started fortifying the Norwegian coasts. Among the foreign workers were Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Czechs, Serbs, Dutchmen, Danes, and even Germans.

The number of the many "voluntarily" recruited workers from the Eastern European areas under German occupation (including White Ruthenia, the Ukraine, and the Baltic States) increased to such an extent that the German Reich Commissar for Norway issued special regulations fixing the conditions for employment of these aliens.

Employment Agencies

Pre-war situation.—By 1937, Norway had 48 labor exchanges, including 11 special municipal offices. Each agency was under the control of a board of inspection appointed by local authorities. The cost of the salaries paid to the staff of such exchanges was borne by State and localities jointly, while all other expenses were paid by the locality. In addition to helping the unemployed to find work, the employment agencies also supplied the Central Bureau of Statistics with reports on employment statistics.

From 1929 to 1939, these 48 exchanges had placed, on an average, approximately 5,900 persons annually from an annual average of

44,000 applicants. According to official statistics, there were no great fluctuations in the yearly number of applicants and placements.

Wartime situation.—After the Nazis seized control of Norway in 1940, they greatly expanded both the authority and the functions of the employment agencies. More than 700 exchanges were established. This was in keeping with the general German policy of using the employment-office system as a means of labor control. An order of October 1940 directed all unemployed workers to register with the employment exchange in their locality. An employer was not permitted to hire a worker except through the exchange or with its consent. Ordinarily, according to the order, unemployed workers were to be referred only to the kind of work in which they were habitually employed. Persons employed in agriculture and forestry, seafaring, or fishing were not permitted to take other jobs until the end of the year 1940.

In addition to their usual placement and statistical reporting activities, these exchanges were used as the means of recruiting Norwegians for work in Germany.

The exchanges' control of labor was extended in March 1941 to include 19 groups of trades and industries. In those groups, labor relations between an employer and an employee could not be terminated without the consent of the labor exchange. Subsequent orders gave the exchanges the power to force employed workers to take jobs in agriculture and forestry, and to close factories in which there was a majority of laborers who were usable in agriculture and forestry. This directive was followed by an order whereby the exchanges could force labor to accept employment in all industries of importance. Employers were to inform the exchange about their need for labor, and the exchange was to obtain the needed manpower. Under the National Labor Contribution Law promulgated in February 1943, the employment exchanges were designated as the agencies that were to draft all labor in Norway and assign it to the various work projects.

Wages and Earnings

METHODS OF WAGE FIXING

Methods of wage fixing were related to the growth of employers' and employees' associations. Thus, prior to 1907 wages were fixed by collective bargaining between local and, later, national trade and craft unions and the representatives of the employers. By 1907 all the national trade-unions were affiliated to the Norwegian Federation of Trade-Unions, and the employers were organized into the Norwegian Employers' Association. After that year, therefore, wages were fixed in the various industries by nation-wide collective agreements which (with a few exceptions) expired at the same time.

Ordinarily the State left wage fixing to the employer and employee associations. However, in cases in which the issues could not be settled by the parties, the law required that the dispute be referred to a court of arbitration created to handle that particular case.

When the Germans seized control of Norway in 1940, their Administrative Council gave full authority in wage matters to the Nazi-dominated Department for Social Affairs. Negotiating employers and employees were given 2 days in which to reach an agreement, after which arbitration was compulsory. If, after another 2 days, the

arbitrator could not reach an accord with the parties concerned, he was to submit a proposal for settlement to the Ministry for Social Affairs, its decision being final.

GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

In 1939, average hourly earnings in selected industries in Norway varied from 1.79 kroner (47.97 cents)⁴ for skilled workers in the metal industry to 1.10 kroner (29.48 cents) for time-rate workers employed in road construction.

Subsequent to 1929, the fall in prices adversely affected money wages, but the reduction was slight. Wages in industry remained practically stationary for several years, but the nation-wide collective agreements of 1936 were largely responsible for a rise in wages in 1936 and again in 1937. Real wages from 1929 to 1940 showed an increase, because until 1940 the cost of living did not keep pace with the rise in money wages. Even with the great advance in the cost of living in 1940, real wages remained above the 1929 level, as table 3 indicates.

TABLE 3.—*Trend of Wage Rates and Cost of Living in Norway, 1929–40*

Year	Money wage per day, including piece work <i>Kroner</i>	Indexes (1929=100) of—		
		Money wages	Real wages	Cost of living
1929	11.75	100	100	100
1930	11.80	100	104	97
1931	11.26	96	104	92
1932	11.48	98	109	90
1933	11.31	96	109	89
1934	11.34	97	108	89
1935	11.34	97	106	91
1936	11.71	100	107	93
1937	12.59	107	107	100
1938	13.82	118	114	103
1939	14.04	119	114	105
1940	15.16	129	106	122

Following the Nazi invasion of Norway, wages, which in May 1940 were 15 percent above those of August 1939, were stabilized on June 1, 1940, at 6 percent above the August 1939 figure. They have since remained at that level, whereas by April 1943, the cost of living had increased to 48 percent above the August 1939 level. Thus, by April 1943, it appeared that real wages had decreased 28.4 percent. Actually, this understated the situation, for the cost-of-living index was out of line with true conditions. Commodity shortages compelled the public to purchase many necessities outside the controlled market and in proportions different from those on which the index was based.

⁴ With a controlled currency, such as the krone, it is difficult to make a comparison with the medium of exchange of another country. Thus, although there was a slight decrease in the international rate of exchange of the krone, internally its purchasing value remained about the same in terms of United States money, namely, 26.8 cents.

On the other hand, many private firms were not bound by the general wage rates, and in separate agreements with employees had, in many cases, raised wages more than 6 percent above the 1939 level. Nevertheless, it was generally estimated in Norway that, from 1939 to 1943, real wages decreased about 50 percent.

DEDUCTIONS FROM WAGES

Deductions were made from wages for State and municipal taxes, old-age and sickness insurance, and trade-union dues. For two typical workers in Oslo, with a wife and two children each and with annual salaries of 3,000 kroner and 5,000 kroner, respectively, deductions amounted to 8.08 and 17.32 percent of income.

WAGE RATES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS

The change in the average wage rates of certain industries and occupations is indicated in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Wages in Norway, by Industry and Occupation, 1929-40*¹

Industry or occupation	1929	1933	1938	1939	1940
	Hourly rates (in kroner)				
Mining industry.....	1.30	1.16	1.46	1.46	1.57
Metal industry:					
Skilled workers.....	1.51	1.36	1.76	1.79	1.84
Unskilled workers.....	1.26	1.11	1.42	1.44	1.58
Paper and pulp manufacturing.....		1.21	1.43	1.46	1.55
Weekly rates (in kroner) on time work					
Masons.....	74.00	73.00	86.00	2 1.80	2 1.89
Carpenters.....	70.00	68.00	82.00	2 1.72	2 1.80
Painters.....	72.00	71.00	84.00	2 1.76	2 1.84
Masons' assistants.....	67.00	66.00	81.00	2 1.68	2 1.78
Cement workers.....	66.00	65.00	80.00	2 1.66	2 1.75
Tailors.....	62.00	62.00	70.00	71.00	71.00
Shoemakers.....	57.00	55.00	62.00	62.00	66.55
Bakers.....	73.00	69.00	77.00	79.00	81.00
Carters (transport).....	54.00	54.00	70.00	71.00	73.70

¹ Source: International Labor Office, Year Book of Labor Statistics, 1942.

² Hourly rate.

In table 5 are shown the wages in industry and handicraft in Norway during the first and second quarters of 1942. Considering the fact that wages were frozen in 1940 at 6 percent above their pre-war rate, the following figures provide a basis for some understanding of pre-war wages and of later wage changes in the activities indicated.

TABLE 5.—*Wages of Adult Workers in Industry and Handicraft in Norway, First and Second Quarters of 1942*

Industry or handicraft	First quarter		Second quarter	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
			Kroner 1.70	Kroner 1.04
<i>Industrial establishments</i>				
All industries				
Mining industry	1.78	1.02	1.83	1.01
Electrochemical and electrometallurgical industry	1.99		2.05	
Chemical industries	1.72	1.09	1.77	1.09
Iron and metal industry	1.87	1.20	1.90	1.21
Mechanical workshops	1.85	1.28	1.89	1.29
Electrical installation	2.06		2.03	
Automobile plants	2.02		2.04	
Tin-packing factories	1.74	1.05	1.76	1.05
Belt and leather industry	1.92	1.09	1.84	1.12
Textile industry	1.49	.92	1.51	.94
Textile mills	1.49	.90	1.51	.92
Hosiery mills	1.55	.99	1.62	1.01
Clothing industry	1.74	1.13	1.78	1.14
Footwear factories	1.73	1.02	1.76	1.03
Ready-made clothing factories	1.76	1.17	1.85	1.20
Staple foods and other consumption goods	1.75	1.06	1.83	1.14
Grain mills	1.73	1.18	1.75	1.22
Margarine plants	1.83	1.21	1.85	1.22
Canning industry	1.46	.87	1.46	.90
Breweries and soft-drink plants	1.86	1.20	1.95	1.24
Chocolate factories	1.90	1.19	2.01	1.27
Tobacco factories	1.72	1.09	1.81	1.12
Condensed-milk plants	1.58	.98	1.66	1.00
Paper industry	1.52	.96	1.54	.97
Other industries	1.88	1.25	1.92	1.25
<i>Handicrafts</i>				
All handicrafts				
Printing industry	2.10	1.78	2.14	1.80
Bookbinders	2.16	1.65	2.17	1.66
Newspaper printers	1.90	1.50	1.92	1.30
Book printers	2.53	2.22	2.59	2.26
Lithographers	2.16	1.62	2.18	1.65
Paper products (boxes, bags, envelopes)	2.25	1.58	2.25	1.59
Building trades	2.10	1.60	1.46	1.44
Plumbers	2.04	1.65	2.04	1.61
Builder and carpenter trades	2.07	1.77	2.12	1.69
Painters	2.18	1.72	2.26	1.63
Bricklayers	2.32	2.10	2.33	2.14
Pipe layers	2.06	1.72	2.07	1.68
Bakers and confectioners	1.85		1.90	
Bakers	1.87		1.90	
Confectioners	1.81		1.91	

ADDITIONAL PAYMENTS

Family allowances and child endowment.—Prior to the Nazi invasion, the standard of living had been so high in Norway that family allowances and child endowment did not exist. After the German invasion, when wages were frozen while the cost of living continued to rise, many companies introduced family allowances for the lowest-paid employees. This allowance was a fixed sum based upon the number of children in the worker's family.

Supplementary payments to workers.—Following the German seizure of Norway, the sharp decline in real wages made conditions almost unbearable for the workers. At the same time, with the possibility of the Nazis taking possession of foods in factories and firms, some enterprises granted loans to their employees to enable the latter to

procure crisis stocks of goods, with the understanding (in some cases) that the loans need not be repaid as long as the wage-freezing regulations were in effect. Other firms made purchases of commodities which they sold to their employees at cost price.

In 1942, the Ministry for Social Affairs urged employers to grant Christmas bonuses, half in food or other necessary consumption goods and half in cash. This suggestion was widely adopted. The bonus in many cases amounted to one-fiftieth of the annual wage. Norwegian employers also began to supply meals to workers. In October 1940, of 240,198 employees, 25,568 could purchase food at reduced prices from factory kitchens; 25,434 were provided with hot meals at their places of work; and 64,579 were assisted in purchasing food in various ways.

As the German domination continued, undernourishment (with consequent lessened production) increased. The German authorities, in 1942, were reported to have issued orders that all employers were to provide hot meals at the plant as soon as the efficiency of the workers noticeably declined. Projects which failed to comply were to be confiscated by the German authorities.

Hours of Labor and Overtime

Prior to the Nazi regime in Norway, as noted, hours of labor were largely determined by collective agreements between organizations of employers and workers, until 1936. In that year, a law stated that, except for such work as was performed by persons employed in a managerial capacity, in theaters or in educational institutions, or as commercial travelers, normal hours of work were not to exceed 8 per day and 48 per week. In the mines, winding time was to be included in the hours of work. Overtime could not exceed 10 hours per week and was to be paid for at not less than time and a quarter.

After the German occupation the hours of work were increased, and by November 1942, amounted to 54 hours in ordinary work. On German projects a 70- to 80-hour week was the usual practice. In addition, by early 1943, 6 hours' overtime per week was authorized for the majority of the industries. However, in enterprises important to defense as well as in the iron and metal, building and construction, automobile, ski, ski-stick, and ski-ties industries, overtime up to 2 hours per day was to be allowed. For this overtime work, the workers could claim the rates provided in the law of 1936 and in the various wage schedules, these ranging from time and a quarter to double time. However, such rates had little meaning where German military authorities were directly in charge of work.

Vacations With Pay

Under the statute of 1936, workers employed at the same establishment for 1 year were entitled to an annual vacation of not less than 9 days with pay. Workers with 6 months' to 1 year's service were entitled to vacation in proportion to the duration of their employment. In general, vacations had to be taken between May 15 and September 15. Remuneration for such leave was to be paid at the beginning of the vacation.

Administrative Agencies for Labor

Prior to the German occupation the Ministry for Social Affairs administered all welfare and labor laws in Norway. A National Arbitrator, directly responsible to the Minister for Social Affairs, was the highest authority for the arbitration of industrial disputes.

The local Labor Distribution Authorities, under the Director of Employment in the Ministry for Social Affairs, had the functions of employment agencies and also administered unemployment insurance and relief.

Also subordinate to the Ministry for Social Affairs was the National Insurance Bureau, charged with the administration of sickness and accident insurance. Other functions placed directly under the Ministry were the administration of the old-age pension system and insurance for the blind and crippled.

Following the occupation of Norway by Germany, administrators of the Quisling type replaced loyal Norwegian officials in the more responsible positions of the Ministry of Social Affairs and its subordinate agencies. To all appearances, the Ministry and its lower offices still functioned as before, although they had been placed under the supervision of the Social Welfare Branch of the German Reich Commissioner for Norway.

With regard to employment exchanges, an order of October 1940 stipulated that in communes without a public employment office, the manager for the insurance fund should be the employment-exchange officer.

The Unemployment Committees, which had been established on the basis of the Unemployment Insurance Act, were assigned the function of advisory bodies to the managers of the public employment exchanges in the various communes, and the Unemployment Councils acted as advisory bodies for the Director of Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance.

Labor Organizations

BEFORE THE GERMAN OCCUPATION

The first trade-unions in Norway were organized in the early 1870's among wage earners in the urban crafts. The steady growth of trade-union organization, accelerated by the expansion of industry and trade, led to the establishment of the Norwegian Federation of Trade-Unions in 1899. Important measures of reorganization were effectuated between 1928 and 1930. Not only did existing craft unions amalgamate to form industrial unions, but new industrial unions were created by dividing the National Union of General Workers along industrial lines. A new Forest and Agricultural Workers' Union was founded. Locally, trades councils, embracing all unions in each industrial center, were established as regular branches of the Norwegian Federation of Labor. Practically all of the trade-unions belonged to the Norwegian Federation of Trade-Unions, which in 1939 had a total membership of 352,479. Some 6,700 workers—3,700 masons and 3,000 electricity and power-station workers—were organized in two national unions that seceded from the Federation.

The Norwegian Federation of Labor consisted in 1938 of 33 national unions, of which 11 were industrial unions and 18 were district trades

councils. These councils, in addition to local unions affiliated with their respective national unions, also included unemployed workers' unions (with a total of 6,736 members) not belonging to any national union. For purposes of wage negotiations, disputes, and strike pay, the Federation was strongly centralized, its national executive council having power to assume leadership in disputes of importance and to call sympathetic strikes. Politically, many trade-union locals were affiliated with the local labor parties, and both the national unions and the Federation gave financial support to the labor press and to labor campaign funds. The Norwegian Federation of Trade-Unions was affiliated with the International Federation of Trade-Unions, and the national unions all belonged to their respective trade internationals. The trend in trade-union membership from 1931 to 1937 is shown in the following tabulation.

	<i>Members</i>
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The Government and labor unions.—The right to combine in unions for obtaining better conditions of work was in principle never disputed in Norway. There was no supervision of trade-unions by the public authorities, nor were there any legislative provisions concerning the compulsory dissolution of trade-unions. However, according to a provision of the Labor Disputes Act of 1927, trade-unions were bound to supply information regarding their organization and membership at the request of the administrative authorities concerned.

Trade-unions which formed unemployment funds under the Unemployment Insurance Act were required to give members of the trade not belonging to the union an opportunity of representation. In this respect the unions exercised public functions. The pursuit of political aims by trade-unions is not forbidden by any law. According to their own rules, the unions were politically neutral, and the independence of the Federation of Trade-Unions with respect to political parties was expressly declared by the Trade-Union Congress. In practice, the unions were not prevented from cooperating with the Labor Party. Thus, a member of the Central Committee of the Labor Party was a member of the Secretariat of the Federation of Trade-Unions, and a member of the Secretariat held a seat on the Central Committee of the Party.

CHANGES UNDER GERMAN OCCUPATION

The occupation authorities reorganized the leadership of the Federation and of many of the trade-unions. The new members of the executive committees were required to make a declaration of loyalty to the National Union [Nazi] Party. Many members of trade-union committees and trade-union officials left their posts and were replaced by persons considered more friendly to the Party. The representatives of the dissolved Labor Party were removed from the committees of the trade-unions. In spite of this, the authorities failed to overcome the resistance of the trade-unions and to persuade them to join in the work for the "New Order."

Attempts in May and September 1942 to reorganize the Norwegian trade-union movement on the pattern of the German Labor Front

failed. Under the German-dominated Ministry of Social Affairs, a committee was appointed to prepare a draft for a Labor Code, which forms one of the items in the program of the National Union Party. The working program, which was approved and published by the new leaders of the Federation of Trade-Unions, shows a number of similarities with the program of the German Labor Front, special stress being laid on such points as the improvement of hygienic conditions in the workshop, the prevention of industrial accidents, vocational education, and the utilization of spare time and holidays. In this connection, it may be noted that a Scandinavian version of the German periodical, *Freude und Arbeit* (Joy and Work), was established.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

As already noted, wage rates and other working conditions are established by negotiation between the Norwegian Employers' Federation and the Federation of Trade-Unions. As a rule, the collective agreements are of national or industry-wide scope, and expire at the same time. In January 1937, collective agreements in Norway numbered 3,743 and covered 266,168 workers, as compared with 846 collective agreements covering 122,536 workers in 1927.

The Norwegian workers' right of collective bargaining has been greatly curtailed under the German occupation. A circular to the district conciliation officers, issued by the National Conciliator in November 1940, required the officers to see that all clauses in collective agreements which "are not in conformity with the State of law now obtaining" are dropped from the agreements. Thus, blanket authority was given to the conciliators to modify any collective agreement.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

The main legislation forming the basis of Norway's judicial labor machinery is the Labor Disputes Act of 1927, which embodies the principal provisions of the 1915 act concerning compulsory conciliation and the Labor Court. Under the system of collective agreements, such as exists in Norway, two kinds of disputes may arise, the one concerning the contents of an agreement (usually when an old agreement expires and a new one is to be drawn up) and the other from pertaining to the interpretation of agreements already concluded.

If the bargaining parties do not succeed in reaching an agreement, the National Mediator or a subordinate local mediator is called in. The National Mediator may forbid a stoppage of work and commence mediation. If mediation continues for 10 days without result, either of the parties may request mediation to be discontinued, and a stoppage of work may then take place after a 4-day interval, if the proper notice for the individual workers has expired.

After the occupation of Norway by Germany a series of amendments to the Industrial Disputes Act increased the powers of the official conciliator, allegedly to bring about a more rapid treatment of cases. At the same time, however, the final decision in wage and other labor questions was nominally entrusted to the Ministry for Social Affairs.

Labor Court.—A Labor Court was established in Norway on the basis of provisions contained in the 1915 Labor Disputes Act, supplemented by acts of 1927, 1931, and 1933. This Court is composed of a chairman and six members, with two substitutes for each member. The employers' associations and trade-unions each choose two members and their substitutes. The Court has jurisdiction over all disputes concerning the validity, interpretation, or existence of a collective agreement, and claims based on an agreement (including individual as well as collective disputes). If the Court finds some unlawful action which is not remedied within 4 days after the issue of the award, it may consent to a declaration of a strike or lockout.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

An indirect recognition of strikes and lockouts as weapons in industrial warfare is to be found in the Labor Disputes Act of 1927. However, voluntary restrictions on the use of strikes and lockouts are often to be found in collective agreements which specify, as a rule, that for the period of the agreement the parties are not entitled to resort to force in matters connected with their rights and obligations under the agreement.

After the occupation of Norway by Germany, strikes were prohibited and up to the present no strikes of any size have been reported.

Cooperative Movement

Cooperative associations in Norway fell mainly into two large groups—the consumers' cooperative store associations and the agricultural marketing associations, some of which also purchased farm supplies for their members. There were also very small numbers of housing associations and fishermen's associations. The combined membership of the various types of associations before the war amounted to slightly over 20 percent of the population.

Agricultural cooperatives.—Norwegian farmers were among the most highly organized, cooperatively, in the world. Before the war, practically every phase of agriculture had its processing and marketing cooperatives, which had done much to improve the quality of Norway's farm products.

Consumers' cooperatives.—The first consumers' cooperative association in Norway is believed to date from 1864. The Consumer's Cooperative Union of Norway familiarly known as "N. K. L." was organized in 1906. In 1921 an insurance association, "Samvirke," was started, to write fire and other insurance (except life); and in 1930 a life-insurance association was established. In 1936, the Union obtained Government permission to open a Cooperative Bank at Oslo.

During the depression that began in Norway in 1930, N. K. L. and its affiliates not only were able to hold their own, but recorded an unbroken advance in both membership and business throughout the entire period.

The ultimate need of the movement—production—was early recognized and, in 1911, the first step in that direction was taken with the purchase of a margarine factory at Bergen. By 1940, N. K. L. was operating 3 margarine factories, 3 coffee-roasting plants, and 1 factory each making tobacco products, soap, shoes, flour, chocolate,

woolen goods, and leather. The products of its plants in 1939 were valued at more than 24 million kroners.

Cooperatives and the war.—When the war broke out, N. K. L. pointed out to its member associations that the cooperatives were capable of exerting a decisive influence on the price level. In 1940, their membership constituted about 6.7 percent of the population of Norway. Taking into account their families, the consumers' co-operative movement was serving nearly 27 percent of the population at that time. The importance of the movement was recognized by the Government which from the outset of the war gave it representation on both local and national price-control committees for the various branches of trade.

When Norway was invaded in April 1940, the cooperative warehouses and other buildings in the war-torn areas suffered damage. The task of reconstruction was begun almost immediately, however.

Notwithstanding all the obstacles, both the wholesale and retail branches of the movement increased their membership in 1941. Repeated efforts by the Germans to take actual control of the movement, while ostensibly leaving it in the hands of the cooperators, were firmly resisted by the cooperative officials. Finally, in August 1942, the offices and warehouses of N. K. L. were closed by the Germans, who seized their entire stocks of goods. It is probable that the local (retail) associations continue to operate in most parts of Norway.

Social Insurance

Social legislation, which has been enacted little by little since the close of the last century, provides benefits in case of sickness, unemployment, and industrial accidents, and general old-age pensions.

SICKNESS INSURANCE

Compulsory sickness insurance is based upon an act of 1930, which replaced legislation of 1909. The later act makes insurance compulsory for all persons over 15 years of age who are employed in private or public service and have a total annual income not exceeding 4,500 kroner, for servants and small farmers (even if they receive no money wages), and for apprentices. There are certain exemptions from liability to sickness insurance, including temporary employment of less than 6 days, part-time employment with earnings not exceeding 300 kroner annually, and some types of employment in charitable institutions. Insurance is voluntary for persons between the ages of 15 and 70 years, who are not covered by the compulsory scheme and whose annual income does not exceed 4,000 kroner.

The sickness insurance is administered by local sickness funds, of which there is one in each commune, managed by a committee of five members, three being insured persons and one an employer. Enterprises or associations with a minimum membership of 200 may administer their own sickness funds. The enforcement of the act and the management of the sickness funds are supervised by the National Insurance Office.

The cost of the insurance is divided among the insured, the employer, the Central Government, and the commune. Compulsorily insured members pay six-tenths of the total contributions; voluntary members pay seven-tenths if their income does not exceed 4,500 kroner, the

whole contribution if it does. Employers contribute one-tenth for compulsory members, and in the case of members of recognized sickness funds, a maximum of 3 kroner annually per insured person. The State subsidies amount to two-tenths for compulsory members and for voluntary members whose annual income does not exceed 4,500 kroner; for members of recognized sickness funds the State subsidies are not to exceed 6 kroner per insured person per annum. The communes pay one-tenth of the total contribution for compulsory members and for voluntary members with an annual income of no more than 4,500 kroner; for members of recognized sickness funds, the communal subsidy is not to exceed 3 kroner annually per insured person. The cost of the central administration is borne by the State.

The sickness benefits are provided for insured persons, their wives, and their children under 15 years, and also medical treatment for children under 7 suffering from certain congenital infirmities.

Medical assistance consists of free attendance by a physician with whom the fund has concluded a contract or payment for medical attendance in conformity with certain scales. Physical treatments, traveling expenses to the consulting room or hospital, and free treatment and maintenance in a hospital up to 39 weeks for any one disease and 26 weeks in any one year represent the main benefits in kind.

The cash benefits vary according to the income class of the insured person, and range from 0.80 kroner per day for persons with annual income of from 300 to 600 kroner to 4.00 kroner for those with income of over 2,800 kroner. No allowance is paid during the first 3 days of sickness. Benefits are payable for not more than 39 weeks in respect of any one disease, and for not more than 26 weeks in any one year. The allowances are withheld if the insured person is treated in a hospital; in some cases they are replaced by family allowances. Maternity allowances are paid to members of the insurance fund at the same rate as the sickness allowance, for 2 weeks before and 2 weeks after confinement. Wives of insured persons are paid a lump-sum allowance of 30 kroner. When the insured person is in a hospital, his dependents are paid allowances equal to 25 percent of the sickness allowance for one person, 50 percent for two or three persons, and 75 percent for four or more persons. In the event of death an allowance of 75 kroner is paid for funeral expenses to an insured person or his wife and 50 kroner for the death of a child.

There were 757 local sickness insurance funds and 34 recognized funds in Norway in 1933. The number of compulsory members was 568,209, and there were 113,272 voluntary members.

INVALIDITY, OLD-AGE, AND WIDOWS' AND ORPHANS' PENSIONS

Under the Old-Age Insurance Act of 1936, all Norwegians are entitled to a pension on attaining the age of 70. The act establishes a minimum pension basis of 600 kroner for rural and 800 for urban communes.

The pension system is financed by a personal tax of 1 percent on income, which is estimated to yield 24 million kroner annually.

The central authority for old-age pensions is the Pension Board in the Ministry of Social Affairs. Pension committees of five members and five substitutes are established in every commune, for the local administration of the pension scheme.

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The Norwegian workers' right of collective bargaining has been greatly curtailed under the German occupation. A circular to the district conciliation officers, issued by the National Conciliator in November 1940, required the officers to see that all clauses in collective agreements which "are not in conformity with the State of law now obtaining" are dropped from the agreements. Thus, blanket authority was given to the conciliators to modify any collective agreement.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

The main legislation forming the basis of Norway's judicial labor machinery is the Labor Disputes Act of 1927, which embodies the principal provisions of the 1915 act concerning compulsory conciliation and the Labor Court. Under the system of collective agreements, such as exists in Norway, two kinds of disputes may arise, the one concerning the contents of an agreement (usually when an old agreement expires and a new one is to be drawn up) and the other from pertaining to the interpretation of agreements already concluded.

If the bargaining parties do not succeed in reaching an agreement, the National Mediator or a subordinate local mediator is called in. The National Mediator may forbid a stoppage of work and commence mediation. If mediation continues for 10 days without result, either of the parties may request mediation to be discontinued, and a stoppage of work may then take place after a 4-day interval, if the proper notice for the individual workers has expired.

After the occupation of Norway by Germany a series of amendments to the Industrial Disputes Act increased the powers of the official conciliator, allegedly to bring about a more rapid treatment of cases. At the same time, however, the final decision in wage and other labor questions was nominally entrusted to the Ministry for Social Affairs.

Labor Court.—A Labor Court was established in Norway on the basis of provisions contained in the 1915 Labor Disputes Act, supplemented by acts of 1927, 1931, and 1933. This Court is composed of a chairman and six members, with two substitutes for each member. The employers' associations and trade-unions each choose two members and their substitutes. The Court has jurisdiction over all disputes concerning the validity, interpretation, or existence of a collective agreement, and claims based on an agreement (including individual as well as collective disputes). If the Court finds some unlawful action which is not remedied within 4 days after the issue of the award, it may consent to a declaration of a strike or lockout.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

An indirect recognition of strikes and lockouts as weapons in industrial warfare is to be found in the Labor Disputes Act of 1927. However, voluntary restrictions on the use of strikes and lockouts are often to be found in collective agreements which specify, as a rule, that for the period of the agreement the parties are not entitled to resort to force in matters connected with their rights and obligations under the agreement.

After the occupation of Norway by Germany, strikes were prohibited and up to the present no strikes of any size have been reported.

Cooperative Movement

Cooperative associations in Norway fell mainly into two large groups—the consumers' cooperative store associations and the agricultural marketing associations, some of which also purchased farm supplies for their members. There were also very small numbers of housing associations and fishermen's associations. The combined membership of the various types of associations before the war amounted to slightly over 20 percent of the population.

Agricultural cooperatives.—Norwegian farmers were among the most highly organized, cooperatively, in the world. Before the war, practically every phase of agriculture had its processing and marketing cooperatives, which had done much to improve the quality of Norway's farm products.

Consumers' cooperatives.—The first consumers' cooperative association in Norway is believed to date from 1864. The Consumer's Cooperative Union of Norway familiarly known as "N. K. L." was organized in 1906. In 1921 an insurance association, "Samvirke," was started, to write fire and other insurance (except life); and in 1930 a life-insurance association was established. In 1936, the Union obtained Government permission to open a Cooperative Bank at Oslo.

During the depression that began in Norway in 1930, N. K. L. and its affiliates not only were able to hold their own, but recorded an unbroken advance in both membership and business throughout the entire period.

The ultimate need of the movement—production—was early recognized and, in 1911, the first step in that direction was taken with the purchase of a margarine factory at Bergen. By 1940, N. K. L. was operating 3 margarine factories, 3 coffee-roasting plants, and 1 factory each making tobacco products, soap, shoes, flour, chocolate,

woolen goods, and leather. The products of its plants in 1939 were valued at more than 24 million kroners.

Cooperatives and the war.—When the war broke out, N. K. L. pointed out to its member associations that the cooperatives were capable of exerting a decisive influence on the price level. In 1940, their membership constituted about 6.7 percent of the population of Norway. Taking into account their families, the consumers' co-operative movement was serving nearly 27 percent of the population at that time. The importance of the movement was recognized by the Government which from the outset of the war gave it representation on both local and national price-control committees for the various branches of trade.

When Norway was invaded in April 1940, the cooperative warehouses and other buildings in the war-torn areas suffered damage. The task of reconstruction was begun almost immediately, however.

Notwithstanding all the obstacles, both the wholesale and retail branches of the movement increased their membership in 1941. Repeated efforts by the Germans to take actual control of the movement, while ostensibly leaving it in the hands of the cooperators, were firmly resisted by the cooperative officials. Finally, in August 1942, the offices and warehouses of N. K. L. were closed by the Germans, who seized their entire stocks of goods. It is probable that the local (retail) associations continue to operate in most parts of Norway.

Social Insurance

Social legislation, which has been enacted little by little since the close of the last century, provides benefits in case of sickness, unemployment, and industrial accidents, and general old-age pensions.

SICKNESS INSURANCE

Compulsory sickness insurance is based upon an act of 1930, which replaced legislation of 1909. The later act makes insurance compulsory for all persons over 15 years of age who are employed in private or public service and have a total annual income not exceeding 4,500 kroner, for servants and small farmers (even if they receive no money wages), and for apprentices. There are certain exemptions from liability to sickness insurance, including temporary employment of less than 6 days, part-time employment with earnings not exceeding 300 kroner annually, and some types of employment in charitable institutions. Insurance is voluntary for persons between the ages of 15 and 70 years, who are not covered by the compulsory scheme and whose annual income does not exceed 4,000 kroner.

The sickness insurance is administered by local sickness funds, of which there is one in each commune, managed by a committee of five members, three being insured persons and one an employer. Enterprises or associations with a minimum membership of 200 may administer their own sickness funds. The enforcement of the act and the management of the sickness funds are supervised by the National Insurance Office.

The cost of the insurance is divided among the insured, the employer, the Central Government, and the commune. Compulsorily insured members pay six-tenths of the total contributions; voluntary members pay seven-tenths if their income does not exceed 4,500 kroner, the

whole contribution if it does. Employers contribute one-tenth for compulsory members, and in the case of members of recognized sickness funds, a maximum of 3 kroner annually per insured person. The State subsidies amount to two-tenths for compulsory members and for voluntary members whose annual income does not exceed 4,500 kroner; for members of recognized sickness funds the State subsidies are not to exceed 6 kroner per insured person per annum. The communes pay one-tenth of the total contribution for compulsory members and for voluntary members with an annual income of no more than 4,500 kroner; for members of recognized sickness funds, the communal subsidy is not to exceed 3 kroner annually per insured person. The cost of the central administration is borne by the State.

The sickness benefits are provided for insured persons, their wives, and their children under 15 years, and also medical treatment for children under 7 suffering from certain congenital infirmities.

Medical assistance consists of free attendance by a physician with whom the fund has concluded a contract or payment for medical attendance in conformity with certain scales. Physical treatments, traveling expenses to the consulting room or hospital, and free treatment and maintenance in a hospital up to 39 weeks for any one disease and 26 weeks in any one year represent the main benefits in kind.

The cash benefits vary according to the income class of the insured person, and range from 0.80 kroner per day for persons with annual income of from 300 to 600 kroner to 4.00 kroner for those with income of over 2,800 kroner. No allowance is paid during the first 3 days of sickness. Benefits are payable for not more than 39 weeks in respect of any one disease, and for not more than 26 weeks in any one year. The allowances are withheld if the insured person is treated in a hospital; in some cases they are replaced by family allowances. Maternity allowances are paid to members of the insurance fund at the same rate as the sickness allowance, for 2 weeks before and 2 weeks after confinement. Wives of insured persons are paid a lump-sum allowance of 30 kroner. When the insured person is in a hospital, his dependents are paid allowances equal to 25 percent of the sickness allowance for one person, 50 percent for two or three persons, and 75 percent for four or more persons. In the event of death an allowance of 75 kroner is paid for funeral expenses to an insured person or his wife and 50 kroner for the death of a child.

There were 757 local sickness insurance funds and 34 recognized funds in Norway in 1933. The number of compulsory members was 568,209, and there were 113,272 voluntary members.

INVALIDITY, OLD-AGE, AND WIDOWS' AND ORPHANS' PENSIONS

Under the Old-Age Insurance Act of 1936, all Norwegians are entitled to a pension on attaining the age of 70. The act establishes a minimum pension basis of 600 kroner for rural and 800 for urban communes.

The pension system is financed by a personal tax of 1 percent on income, which is estimated to yield 24 million kroner annually.

The central authority for old-age pensions is the Pension Board in the Ministry of Social Affairs. Pension committees of five members and five substitutes are established in every commune, for the local administration of the pension scheme.

Supplementary insurance for Government employees.—The State Pensions Fund Act of 1921 applies to salaried employees of the Postal and Telegraph Service, harbor officials, the administrative services of the Forestry and Roads Departments, pilots, and some 500 workers in the Telegraph and Harbor Services. A Parliamentary Resolution of 1923 approved the State Railways Pensions Fund which applies to all salaried employees (but not wage earners) of the various services of the State Railways.

The members of the State Pensions Fund pay contributions equal to 10 percent of their salaries up to a maximum salary of 10,000 kroner per year. Railway employees pay 6 percent of their salaries, and the State Railways make a contribution equal to 4 percent. The State guarantees the benefits of the State Fund and pays an annual subsidy.

Both the State fund and the railways fund pay old-age, invalidity, and survivors' pensions.

Invalidity pensions depend on the length of service, but may not fall below three-quarters of the maximum pension. If invalidity is due to an injury received in the service, the employee is entitled to the maximum pension irrespective of the length of service. The widow of an employee is entitled to half the pension to which the employee would have been entitled if he had remained in the service until the age limit at the salary he was drawing when he died. Children under the age of 18 are entitled to pensions of 40 percent of the widow's pension for one child, 60 percent for two children, 75 percent for three, 90 percent for four, and 100 percent for five or more. These rates are doubled if the children are full orphans.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AND RELIEF

The Unemployment Insurance Act of 1938 provides unemployment benefits for employees liable to sickness insurance, with the exception of those engaged in agriculture, forestry, fishing, and domestic work. Also excluded are persons whose principal source of income is an independent occupation.

Cash benefits are paid for not more than 15 weeks in the course of a year, and they must not exceed one-third of the number of contribution weeks in the last year.

The contributions to the unemployment insurance are paid half by the insured persons and half by their employers. The employer deducts from the wages the share payable by the employee.

Unemployment insurance is administered by the Ministry of Social Affairs through a State Unemployment Council, consisting of five members. Local employment committees, representing both employers and employees, are established in each commune, acting as the governing body of the unemployment fund.

In order to combat unemployment, the State has carried out certain public works, such as construction of harbors, roads, railways, drainage systems, and lighthouses. It has also paid subsidies in respect of work done for communes, private groups, and private persons. It has granted loans to communes for measures to combat unemployment.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Industrial employees' system.—Workmen's compensation, covering wage earners and salaried employees, is provided for under an act of

1931. All employers in manufacturing, mining, quarrying, construction, forestry, shipping, land transportation, and aviation are required to take out industrial-accident insurance for their workers.

The administrative costs of the insurance system are met by the State, but the cost of the insurance is borne entirely by the employer. Contributions are fixed at a certain percentage of the insured person's earnings, and according to the degree of risk in the enterprise.

Benefits are paid not only for accidents but also for certain occupational diseases, such as anthrax and poisoning from lead, mercury, or phosphorus.

For temporary total disability, a daily allowance equal to 60 percent of earnings is paid. For temporary partial disability a fraction of this allowance is paid, varying according to the degree of disability. No benefits are paid if the loss of working capacity is less than 8½ percent. When the injured person is treated in a hospital, his family is entitled to an allowance of 20 percent of his earnings for one person, 35 percent for two persons, and 50 percent for three or more persons. During the first 10 days of sickness these allowances are paid by the sickness fund.

In the case of permanent total disability a pension of 60 percent of earnings is paid. For permanent partial disability a proportionate fraction of that pension is paid. No benefits are payable for disability of less than 8½ percent.

In case of death, an allowance of 75 kroner is granted for funeral expenses. Twenty percent of the deceased employee's earnings is paid as pension to the widow, and 15 percent to each child up to 15 years.

The maximum and minimum limits of annual earnings for the purpose of calculating pensions are 2,000 and 450 kroner, respectively. In the case of apprentices the pension is calculated on the basis of annual earnings of 1,000 kroner for men and 750 kroner for women.

Fishermen's system.—A special act of 1920 regulates the accident compensation for fishermen. The insurance is compulsory for fishermen, whalers, and other persons engaged in sea fishing or sealing.

The annual contribution for each person insured is 10 kroner, of which 4 kroner are paid by the insured person, 4 by the State, and the remainder by the Fishermen's Fund, established in 1920.

The act provides for compensation for injury or death resulting from accidents occurring in the course of fishing, whaling, and sealing. If the insured person is injured on board ship, although not engaged in his occupation, the compensation is payable only if the accident proves fatal.

The benefits in kind and in money are similar to those paid to industrial employees.

Seamen's system.—Separate provisions for seamen's compensation were made in the Seamen's Accident Insurance Act of 1911 which was replaced by a new act in 1931. The insurance is compulsory for the crews of Norwegian vessels, and applies to all persons engaged on board, including the master of the ship.

The actual cost of the insurance is paid by the shipowner, and the State bears the administrative expenses. Contributions are fixed partly as a percentage of earnings and partly at a specified amount per ton, according to the gross tonnage of the ship.

Compensation is payable in case of accidents or climatic diseases and epidemics causing bodily injury or death. The benefits in kind and in money are similar to those granted to industrial employees.

WARTIME CHANGES IN SOCIAL INSURANCE

When the war broke out in Norway in April 1940, an extensive reform in social legislation was in progress. A committee had been formed in 1935 for the purpose of coordinating the various systems of social insurance. A number of suggestions and drafts for new social-insurance laws had been worked out by the committee.

After the Nazis had assumed power and had issued decrees concerning unemployment insurance and the providing of work in connection with sickness insurance, more persons than before took advantage of the opportunity to take out voluntary instead of compulsory insurance, thus saving the premium for unemployment insurance, and escaping the restrictions on manpower. The poor food situation and the increase in illnesses and epidemics caused the sickness-insurance institutions in the fall of 1942 to increase their premiums.

A temporary law of February 1942 increased the workmen's compensation benefits by 10 percent.

Certain communes decided to increase the basic pension amount in order to help persons to obtain higher pensions. This measure did not receive the approval of the Ministry of the Interior, which supervises the activities and economy of the communes, but temporary increases in the old-age pension, decided upon by some communes, were approved. These increases ranged from 10 to 20 percent.

War pensions for military persons and civilians.—On December 9, 1941, the Ministry for Social Affairs promulgated two decrees regarding war pensions, which are to compensate for injuries incurred in service, or for having risked life or health for the country. The decree regarding war pensions does not include persons who took up residence abroad after June 10, 1940. In the case of invalidity pensions, additional allowances based on rank are granted.

All military pension expenditures are to be borne by the State. The decree regarding war pensions for civilians gives somewhat lower benefits than the war pensions for military persons. The expenditures for the war pensioning of civilians is borne in part by the State and in part by a separate premium fixed at 10 percent of the old-age insurance fee, which is paid at 1 per 1,000 of the estimated income. The fee was collected for the first time in the budget year 1942-43. It is assumed that the fee will yield about 2,000,000 kroner annually and is to be used for the creation of a war pensions fund.

Changes in seamen's sickness insurance.—Since January 1, 1942, the Norwegian Government-in-Exile in London has ceased to apply to seamen serving on board its merchant ships the provisions of the Sickness Insurance Acts, and has substituted for them a new set of provisions, constituting a chapter added to the principal act of 1930. The new provisions contained in a provisional order of November 28, 1941, cover Norwegian subjects serving on ships which are at the disposal of the Norwegian Government in London. In a modified form they may be extended to Norwegian subjects serving on foreign ships.

The period of insurance protection is continued for 1 month after discharge (formerly it ended at discharge).

The contributions are uniformly fixed at 12 kroner a month, of which 7 kroner are paid by the seaman, 3 by the shipowner, and 2 by the Government (formerly they were proportional to the seaman's wages, and varied according to his commune of residence). The solvency of the scheme is guaranteed by the Government.

A sick seaman is entitled to medical care with a lodging allowance (at rates to be prescribed) or to maintenance in hospital for a maximum of 52 weeks (formerly 39 weeks), and convalescent care. In case of death, a funeral benefit of 150 kroner (formerly 75 kroner) is paid. The order stipulates that the general provisions of the principal act shall be applied as far as practicable. In this connection, rules will be laid down for the payment of allowances to the dependents of sick seamen.

The scheme is administered by special offices, established by the Government-in-Exile, in London and New York.



The Manpower Situation, July 1944

SHORTAGES in the production of certain vital raw materials because of the lack of manpower have resulted in action by the Government and by industry, designed to provide labor for the war plants.

Priority-Referral Program in Operation¹

Preliminary reports indicated that, under the priority-referral program² of the War Manpower Commission, introduced July 1, available workers were being directed to jobs in the order of their wartime importance.

During the week of July 15, offices in 43 areas throughout the United States sent 77,000 workers to firms producing essential war goods or services. In the labor-shortage areas reporting, referrals to essential employment increased by 20 percent, as compared with an increase of 32 percent in areas where labor supply is adequate. The preliminary reports also indicated a sharp increase in the referral of workers from labor-surplus to labor-shortage areas. The 15 labor-surplus areas from which preliminary reports were received were able to refer 3,600 workers to jobs in other areas urgently in need of workers. One person out of every 10 referred to jobs in these areas was referred to other areas on high-priority orders.

On July 14, however, there was still a net shortage of approximately 200,000 workers in industries and services whose products and activities were absolutely essential to the continued supply of the armed forces. The most critical of these shortages were in shipbuilding, ship-repair, aircraft-production, ordnance, chemicals and petroleum, foundries and forges, logging and lumber, steel production, and construction projects.³

Of the 200,000 workers needed, about 30 percent were required in forge shops and foundries and in heavy-ammunition plants. The forge and foundry establishments needed between 15,000 and 20,000 workers, and the heavy-ammunition plants 50,000 workers.⁴

¹ War Manpower Commission, Press release, July 28, 1944.

² See Monthly Labor Review, July 1944 (pp. 87-88).

³ War Manpower Commission, Press release, July 14, 1944.

⁴ War Manpower Commission, Press release, August 1, 2, 1944.

At the same time, the labor shortage in the tire industry threatens military operations and essential transport facilities abroad and in the United States. According to the Director of Matériel of the Army Service Forces, the tire situation is considered so serious that the Army has decided to relieve matters by furloughing soldiers for work in heavy-tire building. This decision will apply to soldiers still in the United States and not in the infantry, who are over 30 years of age, and who have had 1 year's experience as heavy tire builders or banbury-room workers.⁵

Measures to Provide Necessary Manpower For War Production⁶

The Director of War Mobilization, on August 4, 1944, put into force new manpower controls, the purpose of which is to provide adequate labor for essential war production and to check the present exodus from war plants. The directive deals with the administration of the plans for labor utilization, recruitment, labor ceilings in war and civilian plants, and with the decentralized procedure to permit the handling of local problems locally.

The order expands a program for the West Coast, announced by the Office of War Mobilization on September 4, 1943.⁷ Subsequently the program was extended to all critical labor areas throughout the United States. In substance, it provided for the establishment of a production urgency committee in each critical labor area, under the chairmanship of a representative of the War Production Board, with membership from the interested procurement agencies. These committees were empowered to establish relative urgencies within the areas for manpower, in accord with directives from the Production Executive Committee of the WPB. There was also established in each area a manpower-priorities committee under the chairmanship of the War Manpower Commission, which was authorized to establish ceilings, control referrals, meet the priorities established by the area production urgency committees, and assure the proper utilization of manpower within the area.

Continued difficulties in meeting war production schedules, however, and the increasing desirability of establishing a means for a more rapid allocation of manpower to meet shifts from war to civilian production at the appropriate time led to further directives by the Office of War Mobilization, as follows:

(1) Based upon the requirements for essential production and services determined by the area production urgency committees, the manpower priorities committee in all groups 1 and 2 labor areas shall promptly establish employment ceilings in war industries to enforce better utilization of existing labor; it shall establish ceilings in less-essential industries which will make labor available for essential war production; it shall set manpower priorities; and it shall take such other measures as may be necessary to ensure proper and full utilization of existing manpower. In case of disagreement, the decision of the chairman of the manpower priorities committee shall be deemed as final, shall become immediately effective, and shall not be suspended pending any appeal that may be taken.

(2) The determinations of the area manpower priorities committee made under (1) will be executed through the responsible Government agencies. Upon application of the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, all interested Governmental agencies will apply any and all sanctions lawfully available to the Government including the allocation of materials, fuel, power, and services to ensure compliance with the determinations of the committee.

⁵ War Production Board, Press release, August 3, 1944.

⁶ Statement and directive issued by the Director of War Mobilization, August 4, 1944.

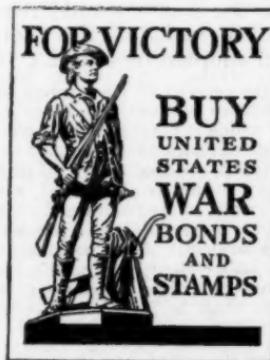
⁷ See *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1943 (p. 933).

(3) If an area production urgency committee, established in a group 1 or 2 labor area, certifies that the need for production is immediate, the War Manpower Commission will not delay or refuse to proceed with labor referrals in the area on the ground that proper utilization of labor is not being made.

(4) Area production urgency committees and manpower priorities committees shall be immediately established in groups 3 and 4 labor areas. The area production urgency committees which will be established in such areas are charged with the responsibility of authorizing increased civilian production. No increased civilian production will be authorized in the area without the approval of this committee. It will not authorize such production until the representative of the War Manpower Commission within the area has certified in writing to the committee that labor is available for such production without interference with local and interregional labor recruiting efforts therein.

(5) The general procedures established in the West Coast manpower program, effective September 15, 1943, will continue to be applicable except as herein modified.

(6) All responsible Governmental agencies shall promptly issue any appropriate regulations to make effective the foregoing.



Wartime Policies

New Procedure for Wage Increases Above 15 Percent

BY a resolution of the National War Labor Board of July 25, 1944, provision was made for handling cases in which there is "a demand for any general wage increase beyond the limits of the existing wage-stabilization policy."¹ This action supplements the Board's resolution of March 22, 1944, by which labor organizations were given an opportunity to submit evidence that the "Little Steel" formula was operating "to create gross inequities and that corrective changes could be made in the formula consistent with the stabilization needs of the country and with the provisions of the Stabilization Act of October 2, 1942." The Board agreed to consider the evidence and to decide whether or not it would be warranted in carrying the investigation further.

Under the new procedure, any labor organization with a case pending has an opportunity to bring to the Board's attention any further evidence which it thinks the Board should receive before the latter decides what disposition to make of the request. The procedure specified in the resolution adopted on July 25, 1944, follows:

1. The union shall promptly present to the agency or panel, for transmission to this Board, a simple and concise summary, no more than three pages in length, of the nature of the evidence which it is prepared to offer.

2. The agency or panel shall transmit this summary to the Director of Disputes of the National War Labor Board, sending a copy of [it to] the other party to the dispute. The other party may submit to the Board, within 10 days after receipt of the summary, a brief statement of its position thereon, and, if it so desires, a simple and concise summary, no more than three pages in length, of any evidence it is prepared to offer on the subject. After consideration of the documents so submitted the National War Labor Board will notify both parties to the dispute and the Board agency or panel whether it desires to receive any or all of the evidence, and what procedure shall be followed in submitting any evidence the Board does desire to receive.

The foregoing procedure does not apply to cases in which an agency or panel of the National Board has already commenced the taking of evidence and argument bearing on the question of a general wage increase beyond the limits of existing stabilization policy or has been instructed by the Board to take such evidence and argument.



Termination of Manning-Table Plan

THE manning-table plan, which has served as a basis for the orderly withdrawal of workers from war industries into the armed forces, has been terminated, the War Manpower Commission announced on

¹ Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, Press release B-1065, July 26, 1944.

August 3, 1944.¹ At the same time, the national headquarters of the Selective Service System stated that replacement schedules for the induction of men were being permitted to expire, as being no longer necessary because of recent changes in Selective Service regulations resulting from lessened requirements.

This dual method of planning releases of men to the armed forces from war plants was first instituted in October 1942. The Manning Table was an inventory of the employees of draft age in each plant, giving their ages, marital status, and draft classifications. The replacement schedule was a table that scheduled the actual induction of the men in such a way as to minimize the effect upon production at each plant.

More than 8,700 war plants with nearly 5,000,000 workers have used the individual Manning Tables, while industry-wide tables covering 16 important war industries were completed and used. Only activities essential to the war effort were eligible, including manufacturing plants whose business volume was 75 percent or more in war materials, public utilities, railroads, and similar industries.



Policies on Employment of Certain Classes of Workers Where Ceiling Programs are in Effect²

REGULATIONS dealing with the employment of specific classes of workers in areas where employment ceiling programs are in effect, have been established by the War Manpower Commission.

Workers having reemployment or reinstatement rights.—Under these regulations, a worker having reemployment rights under the terms of an existing collective-bargaining agreement must be referred, upon his request, to the job to which he has such rights. A similar privilege belongs to workers having reinstatement rights under an order of the National Labor Relations Board. If an employer's employment level is at or above his ceiling when a worker seeks to exercise his reemployment rights, the area director is called upon for a decision. If that official determines that the war effort would be hampered if such employer were required to lay off other workers in order to make jobs available to workers having reemployment rights in his establishment, he may authorize the hiring of such workers, even though such hirings will cause the employer to exceed his ceiling or allowance. However, the number of persons so hired should not exceed the number of separations normally experienced by the establishment during a 2-month period, and employment should be required to revert to the level specified by the allowance or ceiling within 2 months. Where a number of persons in excess of the normal separations anticipated for the next 2 months seek to exercise reemployment rights, the employer should be required to lay off workers in order to fulfill his contractual obligations.

Ceiling programs, and veterans of World War II.—An individual who is entitled to reemployment under the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, and who has applied for reemployment, must be referred to the job to which he is entitled regardless of the provisions of the

¹ Office of War Information, Press release OWI-3459, August 3, 1944.

² War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No 502, August 5, 1944.

area priority-referral program. In carrying out the reemployment of veterans, the same method is to be followed that was designated in the case of individuals having reemployment rights under a collective-bargaining agreement or reinstatement privileges under an order of the NLRB.

This same policy and procedure is recommended as to treatment of the following groups: Veterans of World War II other than those seeking to exercise reemployment rights; veterans entitled to pensions of 10 percent or more; and (when their employment on the basis of qualification is decided to be desirable) persons suffering from such disabilities as total blindness, recent history of tuberculosis, major limb amputations, or pronounced manifestations of psychoneurosis.

Employment of other special groups of workers.—Employers in essential and locally needed activities may employ bona-fide apprentices in excess of the number of employees permitted under their employment ceilings and allowances. However, the usual ratio of apprentices to all-round skilled workers is to be adhered to, and the apprenticeship program is to conform with the standards established by the competent agency having jurisdiction over apprenticeship matters in the area concerned.

Where there is an ample supply of part-time workers—those who do not work more than 30 hours per week—the WMC suggests that their employment may be encouraged, provided they are not counted toward employment ceilings or allowances. In an area where the supply is inadequate, it is recommended that two part-time workers be counted as one full-time worker for the purpose of computing employment levels under a ceiling and allowance program. Individuals engaged in employment which is supplementary to their principal employment, who are so employed for 30 hours or less per week, are regarded as part-time workers for the purposes of this instruction.

Concerning prisoner-of-war labor, the WMC states that no request for such labor is to be transmitted to the War Department if the employer has reached his employment ceiling or there is reasonable expectation that he will reach it. Prisoners of war, if used by an employer for whom an allowance or ceiling has been set, are to be counted against the allowance or ceiling.



National War Labor Board Jurisdiction in Intrastate Labor Disputes

THE National War Labor Board recently stated the principles it has adopted regarding labor disputes involving employers engaged in intrastate commerce and not subject to any State labor relations act.¹ The Board's statement, in the form of a resolution, was divided into two sections, one covering the Board's jurisdiction in general and the other its jurisdiction over particular issues.

¹ Office of War Information. National War Labor Board. Press releases B-1644 and B-1646, July 27, 1944.

On the question of jurisdiction in general, the resolution stated that the Board, under the War Labor Disputes Act, may take jurisdiction over any labor dispute when the U. S. Conciliation Service certifies that the dispute may lead to substantial interference with the war effort. Such jurisdiction, however, will be taken only when the union involved represents a substantial number of the employees concerned. The Board will accept the union "only as the representative of its actual members, and no order will be issued which would require an employer to recognize or bargain collectively with an unrecognized and uncertified union as the exclusive representative of all employees. An exception to this rule will ordinarily be made where an employer has voluntarily extended exclusive recognition to the union, such as a prior collective-bargaining agreement."

As to jurisdiction over particular issues, the resolution stated that except as noted above, the Board will not undertake to rule on questions of representation or exclusive recognition. The Board is under a "clear duty," according to the resolution, to decide disputes over wage rates and other types of adjustments such as vacations, late-shift premiums, incentive payments, etc., which come under the national wage-stabilization program. On issues other than those involving wage adjustments and representation, the resolution concluded, "the Board may determine such issues on their merits by prescribing appropriate terms and conditions of employment or refer such issues back to the parties with or without retaining jurisdiction."



Post-War Reconstruction

Planning for Post-War Canada¹

ALTHOUGH the Canadian Government has established new Departments of Reconstruction, Veterans' Affairs, and National Health and Welfare, which will have a large share in administering post-war measures, most of Canada's post-war program is still in the planning state.² Objectives are full employment, maintenance of the national income at a high level, and a well-rounded system of social security. Plans are being discussed not only by the Dominion Government but also by Canada's two largest trade-union federations, the Canadian Congress of Labor (C. C. L.) and the Trades and Labor Congress (T. L. C.). Many individual employers and employer groups are also working out programs and estimating post-war employment needs, markets, and the possibilities for new products. Most of the Provinces have their own councils or committees on reconstruction, but only the broad programs for Canada as a whole are considered here.

An Advisory Committee on Reconstruction was established in 1941. The Committee had a representative membership, consisting of Dr. F. Cyril James, principal of McGill University (Chairman); P. R. Bengough, acting president of the Trades and Labor Congress; Hon. D. G. McKenzie, chief commissioner of the Board of Grain Commissioners for Canada; J. S. McLean, president of Canada Packers, Ltd.; Arthur Surveyer, civil engineer; and Dr. R. C. Wallace, principal of Queen's University. The Committee's report was submitted to the Privy Council in September 1943.

Transition Period

The critical transition period immediately following the end of the war is estimated by the Advisory Committee on Reconstruction at not longer than 3 years—and in the field of agriculture possibly less. During this period, the report states, reconstruction policies should be directed toward insuring peacetime employment; production of adequate supplies of various goods and services; protection of

¹ This article is based on data from the following publications: Canada, House of Commons Debates (Ottawa), January 27 and 28, March 28, April 17, May 11, 18, and 19, June 30, July 24, and August 5 and 14, 1944, and an Act to Establish a Department of National Health and Welfare (Bill 149); Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), April 1943 and March and April 1944; Report of the Advisory Committee on Reconstruction (Ottawa, September 1943); International Labor Office Yearbook, 1939-40 (Geneva, 1940); International Labor Review (Montreal), April and September 1943 and March 1944; Industrial Canada (Toronto), May and July 1943 and March and May 1944; Trades and Labor Congress Journal (Montreal), October and November 1943; Canadian Unionist (Montreal), October and November 1943 and February 1944; Canadian Congress of Labor Memorandum, July 15, 1943; Foreign Commerce Weekly (U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington), April 15, 1944; Public Affairs (Halifax, N. S.), Winter 1944; and reports from the United States Embassy (Ottawa), Nos. 102, 172, 177, 4238, and 4287 of 1943 and Nos. 74, 118, 125, and 188 of 1944.

² For discussion of this administrative program, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1944 (p. 96). An Act establishing the Departments of Reconstruction and Veterans' Affairs received royal assent, June 30, 1944; the Department of National Health and Welfare was approved July 24, 1944.

involuntarily unemployed from want, and their children from malnutrition and inadequate educational opportunities; and free functioning of markets, domestic and foreign. Inflation is to be carefully guarded against. These views are generally accepted. However, the Canadian Congress of Labor opposes maintenance of free markets, and states that existing controls on import and export trade must be continued, if full employment is to be obtained.

Most groups agree that wartime stabilization controls must be maintained during the immediate post-war period of transition from war to peace economy. Gradual transfer of manpower and resources must be provided, as well as an equally gradual increase in effective demand. Continuing shortages of consumer goods will make this necessary until production of such goods overtakes demand. Controls designed to restrict consumption must be removed, however, as soon as possible. Employers especially emphasize this and state the necessity for orderly removal of controls before they reach the point where there is a danger of their becoming permanent.

In addition, Dominion, Provincial, and municipal governments are expected to have prepared in advance comprehensive programs of public works and national development, to provide employment for those temporarily displaced during the transition period. Maintenance of such measures should secure equilibrium in the difficult period between the stopping of war and the beginning of peacetime production.

Full Employment

The primary long-term aim in planning post-transition measures is the maintenance of full employment. Opinions vary as to the meaning of the term "full employment." The C. C. L. believes that employment is "full" only if unemployment is restricted to a very small amount of seasonal or temporary unemployment. On the other hand, the Canadian Chamber of Commerce considers full employment compatible not only with some seasonal unemployment and temporary unemployment as workers change their jobs, but also with a certain reserve of people waiting for work; the reserve would be used as a "barometer" by the Government, which would watch the numbers and the type of unemployed in the reserve and act accordingly. The Advisory Committee's report advocates policies designed merely to eliminate the mass unemployment previously a corollary of the cyclical fluctuations in business activity; "the existence of a small amount of temporary unemployment is perfectly consonant with the attainment of such an ideal."

Views of labor.—To obtain full employment, organized labor would change the present system of free enterprise. The Congress of Labor supports a broader reorganization of the economy than is advocated by the Trades and Labor Congress. The former group considers that free enterprise has ruined itself and no longer exists, and that if it were restored, it would destroy itself again. As a substitute, the C. C. L. suggests not just public control of private monopoly, with a complicated system of "inducements, spurs, and checks," but a substantial sector of public monopoly. Public enterprise could be extended by adapting the war plants now owned by the Dominion to the production of peacetime commodities, with Dominion ownership retained. Special stress is laid by the C. C. L. on public ownership,

coordination, and distribution of transportation facilities, food, housing, and coal. Some of the wartime controls, it states, should be made permanent; among these are the priorities system, bulk purchase of essential imports and bulk sale of staple exports, and some foreign-exchange control. In short, the C. C. L. would advocate social control of the economic system to whatever degree and in whatever form may be necessary for full employment. The detailed opinion of the T. L. C. is nowhere made clear. It advocates a considerable extension of Government activity but does not wish to be considered as supporting socialism. In any case, it does not go as far as the C. C. L.

Views of employers.—Opposed to the labor view is that of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, which believes that the Government should not enter the post-war industrial field in competition with private industry. In the opinion of the association, Government-owned plants and machinery should be disposed of, and private enterprise should continue. Government should not assume the responsibility of assuring jobs and incomes and should produce work-providing projects only as an emergency or first-aid program, when it is necessary to supplement private enterprises. Industry should study transition problems and develop a series of plans which "can be put promptly into effect when the time comes."

The Canadian Chamber of Commerce, too, rejects Government ownership or "control," in the sense of assumption of responsibility for production, but it goes somewhat farther than the Manufacturers' Association and concedes that regulation is necessary. Reversing its previous policy, the Chamber favors the Government's management of the budgetary and monetary policies as a means of mitigating the trade cycle. In a period of slump the Government should follow an expansionist policy and spend over the budget; in boom days, the Government should curb the excessive use of money by high taxation and general deflationary measures.

The Chamber of Commerce emphasizes the importance of a cooperative understanding between workers and management, and advocates the general adoption of works councils and production committees. The importance of the use of collective bargaining is stressed.

Views of Advisory Committee on Reconstruction.—The Advisory Committee seems to agree more generally with the employers' view than with labor's proposals. In advocating that private enterprise continue to play an important part in Canada's economic life, the report of the Advisory Committee urges that each group and, wherever possible, each individual enterprise should prepare its post-war plans. In addition, it recommends that every business enterprise be encouraged to develop a long-range program of capital expenditures. Government, too, must plan an expenditure program, and the Committee recommends cyclical Government budgeting. Such budgeting would involve keeping the public-investment budget separate from the annual operating budget. The latter should balance in each fiscal year, but the former would accumulate surpluses in good years and, if necessary, deficits in poor years. Such a program would involve carefully planned public work. The Committee recommends detailed surveys of all desirable public works, with postponable projects awaiting periods of business depression when private business slackens.

Plans should be so made that projects of urgent importance for the common welfare would be carried out immediately after war ends.

To facilitate the plans of both Government and private industry, the Committee recommends that the Government announce as soon as possible its policy on disposal of war plants. At the opening of Parliament on January 27, 1944, it was announced that suitable peacetime uses for war plants are being investigated, and plans are being made for their speedy conversion. The War Assets Corporation, a Government company, has been organized to dispose of surplus war materials and Government-owned war plants. To assist in the conversion, and in the development of small and medium-sized industrial enterprises, an Industrial Development Bank was established by act of August 19, 1944, as a subsidiary of the Bank of Canada. The bank will provide financial resources for industrial enterprises. To help in obtaining foreign markets, legislation has been passed to provide for insurance upon export credits.

In addition to the reconstruction of its physical properties, each business enterprise is urged by the Committee to organize manager-labor relations to provide continuous employment at steady wages for an appropriate number of workers. Joint committees representing labor and management should be formed in the establishments, for the discussion of common problems. Such groups, according to the Committee, should not interfere with trade-union development, and the right of a majority of the workers in any plant or industry to decide on the formal type of organization to be adopted must not be infringed. On the other hand, unions should not use restrictive practices, and entrance of new individuals (especially ex-servicemen) into certain trades should not be made too difficult. Wages for all workers cannot be expected to be maintained at the highest rates received by some favored individuals during the war, and the Committee thinks that an attempt by the unions to continue such high rates would be extremely short-sighted. Of course, in some peace-time industries, wage scales may appropriately be increased.

The Committee's report recognizes the importance of markets in the free-enterprise economy advocated. Accordingly, for the maintenance and restoration of Canada's important foreign markets, the Committee recommends continued Canadian participation in discussions of international monetary-stabilization plans; carefully considered reduction of tariff barriers rather than an immediate effort to establish free trade throughout the world; and long-run raising of the standard of living in backward areas (although a policy of post-war rehabilitation loans to foreign countries is opposed). Agriculture will be especially benefited by this encouragement of international markets. Domestic markets may be improved by an increase in home consumption—obtainable by Government action. Higher nutritional levels would result from free milk and midday meals for school children, establishment of cheap factory canteens, the inauguration of food-stamp plans, and research aimed at making possible the long-distance movement of foodstuffs.

Incentive to produce, as well as demand for products, is important in a private-industry economy. For this reason, the Advisory Committee advocates revision of the wartime tax structure. Its report states that taxes on corporation profits should be reduced, excess-profits taxes eliminated, and taxes on sales to consumers carefully

considered; the main source of revenue should be the personal income tax. Such revisions, in the opinion of the Committee, would stimulate private industry.

Employment Opportunities

The Advisory Committee on Reconstruction appointed six subcommittees to study (1) agricultural policy, (2) conservation and development of natural resources, (3) publicly financed construction projects, (4) housing and community planning, (5) post-war employment opportunities, and (6) post-war problems of women.

The report of the subcommittee on post-war employment opportunities deals largely with the placement and training of workers whose needs will be particularly intensified in the post-war period. The flexible redirection of labor is considered essential to, as well as dependent on, maintenance of full employment. The subcommittee recommends that the Dominion Employment Service, which would act as coordinator for the various aspects of placement and training, should be expanded and should have exclusive jurisdiction over placement of workers. Training facilities should be increased and adjusted to include more apprenticeship training and to strengthen technical and preemployment courses. Part-time classes, in-plant training, and training of supervisors and foremen should be improved, and the various types of training coordinated.

Apart from the increased post-war need for training facilities, the importance of supplementary training for the unemployed is stressed. In addition, increased provision of basic training for unskilled workers, and retraining of older or disabled workers, as rehabilitation, are recommended by the report.

Special study was directed to the building trades, which are expected to absorb a considerable proportion of the workers released by other industries in the transition period. Vocational guidance and training in these trades and regular placement through the Employment Service offices are considered of prime importance.

Statistics compiled for the subcommittee on post-war employment of women indicate that the number of women engaged in industry doubled, rising from 600,000 in June 1939 to 1,200,000 in November 1943. More than two-thirds of the 1943 total were in the manufacturing and service industries and about one-fifth (none of the estimates included women in the armed forces) were directly or indirectly engaged in war work. On the basis of a sample survey and the assumption that industrial activity will expand as compared to the pre-war level, the subcommittee estimated that of the 1,200,000 employed in November 1943, 750,000 will be required for normal employment after the war, and 270,000 will marry or return to their homes. The remaining 180,000 women will be looking for work when war production ends.

Some of the post-war employment opportunities available for women, according to the subcommittee, will be work on farms (95,000 women have left farms since the war began); household work, which the subcommittee feels should be made more attractive by social-security protection, higher wages, better hours, and better training, to raise household work to the "dignity of a profession"; new industries, such as plastics; possible expansion in the distributive trades and service occupations; new Government services such as health insur-

ance, security measures, and housing projects; and selection from among those now employed of well-educated, capable young women who wish to be trained as technical and professional workers. Additional Government action recommended includes the establishment of a scheme of children's allowances; speedy implementation of health insurance; increased number of nursery schools; extension of unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation to groups not now covered; and immediate attention to the special needs of farm women, and to the problem of the 100,000 women over 20 years of age now working for less than \$12 a week in occupations covered by unemployment insurance.

Social Security

The Government has announced its intention to provide, for the whole of Canada, "social security and human welfare." On March 5, 1943, the House of Commons created a special committee to examine and report on the most practicable measures of social insurance, and, in particular, the establishment of a national system of health insurance. On March 16, 1943, a general report on social security for Canada, a report on health insurance, and the draft of a health-insurance bill were presented to the special committee.

The general report (the so-called Marsh report) proposed a basic minimum of economic security for every citizen. It recommended protection against unemployment, sickness, disability, old age and retirement, widowhood and orphanhood, and family needs (such as the extra expenses of births, deaths, and the maintenance of children). Methods proposed were (1) the extension of Canada's present system of unemployment insurance and establishment of an unemployment-assistance program for those not covered; (2) a national system of health insurance to provide medical, dental, and hospital care, and the provision of cash benefits for time lost from work by sickness; (3) retention of existing workmen's compensation provisions and establishment of benefits for those disabled by nonindustrial causes; (4) revision of present old-age pension scheme and eventual replacement of it by retirement pensions on a contributory basis; (5) pensions for widows and orphans; and (6) children's allowances, cash grants for funeral expenses, and maternity benefits for women wage earners. A national employment program was recognized as necessary for the carrying out of such a program. No specific draft measures were contained in the report, which merely provided a framework on which legislation may be based.²

The draft bill on health insurance under consideration by the committee made specific proposals for Dominion and Provincial legislation. It would provide to all citizens complete medical and nursing services, hospitalization, medicines and drugs, and dental care. The scheme would be financed partly by taxation and partly by contributions which all adults in Canada would make. According to this plan, a Federal statute would be passed under which the Dominion Government would assist financially any Province which enacted a health-insurance measure along approved lines. A public health program

² For a fuller discussion of these proposals, see *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1943 (p. 60).

was also included, designed to prevent illness to the fullest possible extent, and to raise standards of health throughout the country.

It has been pointed out that the Marsh report on general social insurance does not represent Government policy, being purely educational and informative. The health-insurance bill, which was the result of an effort by the Minister of Pensions and National Health to obtain immediate action by Parliament, went to the committee "without the blessing of the Government and without having been introduced in the House of Commons and approved in principle." Furthermore, constitutional issues are involved. The Provinces have legislative jurisdiction in matters of this kind, but the Federal Government alone has the financial resources to make a nation-wide system possible. The health-insurance bill would avoid the problem by proposing Federal grants to any Province which enacts legislation along the lines of a model bill under which each Province could introduce and administer health insurance. The alternative method available if the scheme is rejected is an amendment to the British North America Act, as was done in the case of the national scheme of unemployment insurance. It was stated by a Government official that such an amendment could be readily passed.

Accordingly, it is considered unlikely that such social legislation will be enacted very soon. In July 1943, the Committee on Social Security approved the general principles of health insurance, but felt that further study of the bill presented to it was necessary. Also, the committee recommended a Dominion-Provincial conference before submission of the health-insurance proposals to Parliament for legislative enactment.

Organized labor is of course much in favor of the introduction of comprehensive social-insurance schemes. However, the T. L. C., although advocating such measures, states that the complete revision of Canada's economic and social structure is more fundamental, and that only such a revision can insure the country.

The view of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association on the proposed legislation is not only that the suggested rates are too high, but also that existing medical facilities would be completely inadequate. Further study and discussion with medical authorities is advocated. The Canadian Chamber of Commerce favors social security, emphasizing preventive measures. That organization states that the cost of such a broad scheme should be equitably shared by the workers, employers, and the Government.

The Advisory Committee's report recommended the institution of as many social-security measures as possible, but called attention to the fact that the financing of such a system depends on the maintenance of a high national income.

Under the legislation passed on July 24, 1944, administration of social-security measures is to be transferred from the Department of Pensions and National Health to the Department of National Health and Welfare. Functions of the new Department will include "all matters relating to the promotion or preservation of the health, social security, and social welfare of the people of Canada over which the Parliament of Canada has jurisdiction" and which are not by law assigned to any other department.

Housing

The Governor-General announced at the opening of Parliament on January 27, 1944, that construction activity and adequate housing would be aided through broadening of the loan facilities of existing housing legislation. On May 11, 1944, the Minister of Finance stated that the Government expected to introduce as soon as practicable a bill which would embody the Government's recommendations in regard to housing legislation. This, he stated, "will be a comprehensive measure covering all phases of the housing problem," and, while "it cannot be fully operative until the end of the war or at least until the period of acute material and manpower shortages has ended, nevertheless it is expected that some activity will take place under it in the immediate future." Certain sections of the measure provide for post-war reduction of the interest rate and lengthening of terms of loans, for an increase in the size of loans possible for low-rental housing projects, and for housing in rural areas and the repair and modernization of urban homes. The aim of the bill is to stimulate housing construction, lower the total cost of housing to the public, and improve the efficiency and the amenities of urban communities. On August 5, 1944, the new housing bill was introduced in the House of Commons.

Organized labor emphasizes the importance of a housing policy. The T. L. C. states that housing should come first in providing post-war employment, and should be nationally financed; the Federal Housing Act which established a system of loans should be extended immediately. According to the C. C. L., the provision of adequate housing, both rural and urban, is one of the most immediately pressing tasks. An accurate estimate of the community's needs should be ready when the war ends, based on the normal need for new housing, plus the depression and war deficits. Detailed plans for meeting these needs also should be made as quickly as possible. The C. C. L. estimated that such a program would provide 100,000 new homes annually for a period of 5 years and furnish employment for nearly 200,000 workers each year. New housing for the low- and middle-income groups, it was stated, must be undertaken almost entirely by public authorities or with subsidies from such authorities.

The Manufacturers' Association recognizes that Canada has a housing problem, and one that is both rural and urban. However, various groups in the association feel that immediate post-war Government construction should consist of projects requiring large amounts of unskilled labor, such as highway construction, etc., and this would not include housing.

Agriculture

The special problems and needs of agriculture are the concern of almost all agencies discussing post-war planning. Maintenance and expansion of international markets for Canada's agricultural exports have already been called to attention, as well as the raising of the domestic nutritional level by Government help. The development of local industries in predominantly agricultural areas is stressed.

Equalization of rural and urban living standards is one of the programs on which all groups seem agreed. Organized labor is very

vocal on the subject, and the manufacturers also consider it of prime importance. The C. C. L. declares that in few countries is the disparity between rural and urban living more glaring than in Canada. This disparity is of extreme importance to labor as well as farmers, for a low farm income means a restricted market for the products of labor, the possibility of importing cheap labor into industrial areas from the farms, and a cleavage between farmers and labor. The C. C. L. advocates broad Government measures. In its view, a national food-planning commission should be established to work out a national food policy in detail. Such a commission would be composed of representatives of government (Dominion, Provincial, and municipal), nutrition experts, farmers, laborers, and consumers. A national policy would provide an adequate, balanced diet within the means of the poorest citizen, and at the same time give the farmers a guaranteed market and an adequate price for their products. "If the price the worker can afford to pay is insufficient to give the farmer a living income, then public funds derived from taxation based on ability to pay must bridge the gap." Other measures are also considered necessary, such as reconditioning and re-equipment of many farms; vigorous and rapid development of rural electrification, rural housing, and home improvement; and the provision of necessary farm machinery and rural credit at low cost.

Specific steps taken for the benefit of persons in the field of agriculture include the Veterans' Land Act and the bill providing for the establishment of floor prices for staple farm products, which passed its third reading in the House of Commons on July 31, 1944.



Post-War Economic Planning in Sweden¹

A SERIES of preliminary studies of post-war problems was started by the Swedish Ministry of Finance in the middle of 1943, the purpose of which was to analyze the changes wrought by the war in Sweden's economic structure. Other investigations aimed to formulate blueprints for a public-investment program covering the first 2 post-war years, in case of large-scale unemployment.

A study of the industrial labor market for the purpose of estimating the number of workers the war industries will release at the end of hostilities has been made by the Arbetsmarknads-kommissionen, Sweden's governmental agency controlling the supply of manpower. The Industriens Utredningsinstitut, the research agency of the Swedish Association of Manufacturers, completed a report on total employment during the war and the size of the labor force needed in industry during the first 2 post-war years.

In February 1944, the King in Council appointed the Swedish Post-War Economic Planning Commission, headed by Prof. Gunnar Myrdal. Among the 21 members of the Commission are representatives of the four major political parties: The Social Democratic (Labor) Party, the Conservatives, the Farmers' Party, and the Liberals. The president of the Employers' Association and the head of the Swedish Federation of Trade Unions are members of the Com-

¹ Data are from Some Notes on the Swedish Post-War Economic Planning Commission, by Tore Browald, submitted with report (No. 3342) from United States Legation at Stockholm, May 12, 1944.

mission. Also represented are the Swedish Chamber of Commerce, the Swedish Association of Manufacturers, the Swedish Farm Bureau, and the cooperatives. The two leading trade-unions also have seats on the Commission.

The Commission has dealt with specific practical problems which may arise during the reconversion period. Because of the size of the Commission and the great number of problems involved, the membership has been distributed in small committees, each charged with the task of studying one or a group of problems and making proposals for their solution. These proposals are then laid before the Commission, which finally determines what course to follow.

Reports of Commission

During the first 2 months of its existence, the Commission has come forward with two important reports. The first concerns the future monetary and wage policy. During the war, cost of living has risen about 40 percent. Because of the wage-freeze policy, which allows only a partial compensation in wages for a corresponding rise in the cost-of-living index, the real wages of the workers have fallen by 10 percent. The policy decided upon by the Commission implies that nominal wages are to be kept at their present level. The desired rise in real wages is to be attained by an automatic decrease in the price level which will be brought about by such factors as a decrease in freight rates on imported goods, the return to the ordinary type of fuel, especially coke and coal, instead of the high-priced wood now used, etc. The carrying through of this policy has been assigned to the Swedish agency for price control. Its task will in the post-war period no longer be that of holding a certain price level, but the much more difficult one of pressing down prices.

The second report of the Commission deals with public-works policy in case of widespread unemployment. The Commission is unanimous in its opinion that large public works should be resorted to if private investment and export trade fall below the level necessary to keep full employment. The Ministry of Finance has made an investigation of the public-investment field in order to choose those investments which are most suitable from a social and economic point of view. Altogether, the survey has embraced consideration of public works totaling 3.7 billion Swedish crowns. A large number of these projects—Involving about 800 million Swedish crowns—already exist on blueprints and are being planned in detail. By making this investigation Sweden hopes to be able to avoid previous mistakes, i. e., starting badly planned and uneconomic public works, if and when unemployment appears.

The Commission has strongly stressed two important principles for public-works policy: (1) Public works intended for an unemployment situation should not be planned separately from the long-range policy of the Government. If, for instance, the Government should consider it advisable from a social point of view to build special recreation places, or erect buildings for the so-called "school luncheons," these investments should be made during a depression. In the same way, if Sweden decided to have right-hand instead of left-hand traffic, the change-over should be carried out as a public relief measure during depression.

(2) There is danger in stressing the public-works program too much. It is pointed out that all public works are essentially building projects which direct their demand for supplies to rather narrow sections of the economy, and may result in undesired structural changes. The Commission therefore proposes that the Government should order consumption goods directly from the different industries, thus enabling the unemployed to be placed in their own industries instead of putting them to work in the construction industry.

At about the time that the Commission started its work, a Social Democratic-Labor program for post-war economic policy was issued. Among the proposals were the following:

1. Full employment to be reached under the economic leadership of the Government.
2. Housing to be an important part of post-war economic policy. The housing standard to be raised.
3. The production of "utility goods" to be continued and widened.
4. The social-security program to be enlarged.
5. Working hours to be shortened, but not primarily as a means of fighting unemployment.
6. A policy to be adopted whereby families with children will have social and economic advantages.
7. Equal opportunities to be provided for education, independent of class, place of residence, and parents' income.
8. Equal standard of living and leveling out of class differences.
9. Socialization of insurance, creation of a Government-owned commercial bank, and all investment activities to be directed by a public-investment organization representing governmental, private, and cooperative enterprises.
10. Foreign trade to be brought under Government leadership.
11. Lots and apartment houses in towns and cities to be taken over gradually by the municipalities.
12. Measures against monopolies.
13. Organization of "joint production committees" so that the workers may share in the management of the factories.

Industrial Accidents

Causes of Accidents Involving Faulty Handling of Materials and Equipment in Shipyards¹

NEARLY 20 percent of the disabling injuries experienced by shipyard workers are directly associated with improper methods of handling tools, lumber, metal stock, and other shipyard equipment.

Altogether, 47,730 detailed reports, describing individual accidents in private shipyards which are operating under U. S. Maritime Commission or Navy Department contracts, were analyzed in this study. Of these, 9,173 were cases involving improper manual lifting, holding, or carrying. Unsafe physical conditions of various types were present and contributed in some measure to the occurrence of most of these accidents. The present analysis, however, has been confined to the unsafe handling procedures, or unsafe acts, without reference to the surrounding conditions.

About one-third of the cases which fell in the improper-handling category, involved lifting or carrying metal stock. Hand tools were involved in 25 percent of the cases, and lumber in 13 percent.

Fifteen percent of the injuries resulting from improper handling were experienced by woodworking craftsmen, i. e., carpenters, shipwrights, and stagebuilders. A similar proportion was experienced by shipfitters. Most of the remainder was distributed as follows: Laborers or handymen, 11 percent; welders, 9 percent; pipe fitters, erectors, riggers, and machinists, 7 percent each; and sheet-metal workers, 4 percent.

In the main the injuries resulting from improper handling of materials caused only temporary disabilities, although many of the cases involved extended loss of time. Strains and sprains, which totaled 37 percent of the entire group of injuries, primarily affected the trunk, arms, wrists, knees, and ankles. Many of these trunk injuries were hernias. Contusions and bruises, about one-fourth of the total injury volume, occurred mainly to the feet, toes, fingers, shoulders, and ribs. Fractures totaled about 18 percent of all the injuries. Significantly, indicating the desirability of the universal use of safety shoes, more than half of the fractures were foot or toe cases.

It is apparent from the analysis of these accidents that their common underlying cause is the relative inexperience and lack of thorough understanding of safe procedures on the part of present-day shipyard workers. The great majority of the unsafe acts which led to the occurrence of the reported accidents were acts which skilled, safety-conscious workers would not commit. The responsibility of management, however, is not lessened by that fact, but on the contrary is

¹ Prepared in the Division of Industrial Hazards by Frank S. McElroy and Arthur L. Svenson.

greater. Increased efforts to instruct workers in safe procedures and much closer supervision of individual operations to prevent unsafe procedures are necessary if the volume of injuries resulting from improper handling is to be reduced.

By far the greatest number of the reports which were analyzed included specific recommendations by the supervisors as to the steps which should be taken to prevent the recurrence of similar accidents. Six specific recommendations were repeated time and time again. This wide agreement among the actual work supervisors indicates that the problems involved are general and that those who are closest to the scene of the accidents do understand and recognize what preventive measures should be taken. Some of these preventive measures can be taken by the supervisors themselves, but others can be made effective only through general plant programs. The recommendations most frequently made were the following:

1. Provide additional and more thorough training in the proper use of tools, both in training courses and on the job.
2. Provide and extend the use of protective clothing, safety shoes, gloves, etc.
3. Teach workmen not to attempt to lift, move, or carry material which is too heavy or bulky for one man to handle. See that additional workers or mechanical equipment are available in such instances.
4. Intensify instruction in the proper method of lifting with the legs instead of with the back.
5. Provide crew leaders and require the use of standard signals for coordinated action when teams of men are moving heavy loads.
6. Emphasize the instructions not to walk backward when carrying or pulling materials or equipment.

Unsafe Acts Causing Accidents

Outstanding among the unsafe acts revealed by the analysis was the simple and thoughtless act of taking an incorrect hold or not maintaining a good grip upon the objects being handled. Nearly half of all the mishandling cases were in this category. Specifically, this group included many cases in which materials or tools slipped from the worker's hands because there was oil or grease on the material or on his hands; or because the worker grasped the material at a sharp or rough spot which caused him to release his grip; or simply because the object was not held firmly enough to control its movements.

Lifting, moving, or carrying excessive weights was the source of 22 percent of the injuries resulting from faulty handling. A considerable number of the supervisors' reports describing these accidents stated that cranes, hoists, or hand trucks were available, and implied that the workers were at fault in not having used them instead of trying to move the materials by hand. In the absence of specific instructions to use such equipment, however, the fault must lie with the supervisor for not making sure that proper methods were used. In most of the cases in which mechanical equipment was not available, the supervisor might have readily avoided the accidents either by assigning additional workers to help with the load or by specifying a safe procedure. One such instance occurred in the removal of a large section of a "D" plate. A shipfitter placed his shoulder under the part which was being burned off to give it support. When the

full weight of the section rested on him, it fractured his collarbone. After this accident occurred, the report stated, the supervisor ordered that thereafter such sections should be burned off in small pieces to facilitate handling. In another instance a rigger carrying a chain-fall fell off a gang plank because he was thrown off balance by the heavy weight on his shoulder. This accident led to the issuance of an order that two men must be assigned to the job of moving chain-falls.

Somewhat similar to the accidents involving the handling of excessive weights were those for which it was reported that the worker lifted with his back instead of his legs, or lifted while in a cramped position. Assuming that the circumstances in all cases were as described upon the supervisors' reports and that no excessive weights were involved in this group of accidents, the record shows that 13 percent of all the mishandling accidents resulted from these improper lifting procedures. The obvious implication is that greater efforts need to be taken to see that every shipyard worker knows the safe methods of lifting and that the supervisors be constantly on the alert to see that those methods are used.

Other unsafe acts in handling materials which produced lesser, but nevertheless significant proportions of the accidents under consideration were the lack of coordinated teamwork, working too near other persons, carrying material on ladders, and walking backwards. A typical report on an accident of this group described a case in which six men were carrying a heavy timber, using three cant hooks. When they reached the approximate spot in which the timber was to be placed, the two men at the front lowered their end to the ground without warning the others. Immediately, the two men in the center released their hook, throwing all of the weight upon the two men at the rear. They were unable to hold the extra load and the timber dropped, severely injuring each of them on their legs and feet. All lifting teams in that yard are now required to have crew leaders to coordinate the efforts of the men through a standard set of signals.

Most of the workers who were injured as a result of carrying tools or materials while climbing or descending ladders were welders, ship fitters, or pipe fitters. Many of the reports on accidents of this type suggested that the tendency to carry materials up and down ladders might be at least partly overcome by placing permanent hand lines at the side of each ladder.

Although it should be apparent that walking backwards while carrying materials or pulling lines is practically inviting an accident, this practice seems to be fairly common. Two percent of all the material-handling accidents were cases in which the injured persons tripped over objects which they backed into while moving material or equipment. Better housekeeping on working surfaces undoubtedly would have eliminated many of the tripping hazards, but workers should also be impressed with the danger of walking backwards under any circumstances.

The practice of indiscriminate pulling of welding lines also accounted for a considerable number of additional injuries, and frequently caused damage to the lines, which in turn created new hazards. Cases were reported in which welders pulled their lines without looking and tripped other workers who were near by. In other instances the pullers themselves were injured when they exerted unusual effort to

move lines which had become caught, and were thrown to the deck when the lines came free.

Tables 1 and 2 show the unsafe acts, involving manual handling of materials, tools, etc., which led to the accidents reported.

TABLE 1.—*Shipyard Accidents Involving Unsafe Handling of Materials or Equipment, Classified by Unsafe Act and Agency*

Unsafe act and agency	Number	Percent	Unsafe act and agency	Number	Percent
Total	9,173	100	Lack of coordinated teamwork when handling	300	4
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold when handling	4,489	49	Metal stock	214	3
Hand tools	1,958	21	Lumber	98	1
Metal stock	1,180	13	Other materials and objects	87	1
Lumber	470	5	Working too near other person who was handling	323	3
Cable, hose, airlines	243	3	Hand tools	122	1
Other materials and equipment	638	7	Metal stock and lumber	84	1
Lifting beyond strength when handling	1,906	22	Other materials and objects	117	1
Metal stock	894	10	Ascending and descending ladder while carrying tools, metal stock, etc.	205	2
Lumber	325	4	Walking backwards while pulling lines and cables or carrying materials	163	2
Barrels, bars, kegs, etc.	122	1	Using hands or feet instead of tools when handling wrench or moving materials, etc.	102	1
Cables, hose, air lines	89	1	Throwing tools, metal stock, etc., instead of passing them	151	2
Hand tools	78	1	Other unsafe acts	183	2
Other materials and objects	488	5			
Assuming improper lifting posture when handling	1,165	13			
Metal stock	458	5			
Lumber	109	2			
Barrels, boxes, kegs, etc.	90	1			
Hand tools	87	1			
Cables, hose, air lines	79	1			
Other materials and objects	252	3			

TABLE 2.—*Shipyard Accidents Involving Unsafe Handling of Materials or Equipment, Classified by Nature of Injury and Unsafe Act*

Nature of injury and unsafe act	Number	Percent
Total	9,173	100
Sprains and strains, including hernias sustained through	3,437	37
Lifting beyond capacity	1,456	16
Assuming improper lifting posture	1,095	12
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold	580	6
Lack of coordinated teamwork	103	1
Other unsafe acts	203	2
Contusions, bruises, hematomas, sustained through	2,251	25
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold	1,579	18
Lifting beyond capacity	215	2
Lack of coordinated teamwork	113	1
Working too near other person	88	1
Other unsafe acts	256	3
Fractures sustained through	1,638	18
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold	1,063	11
Lifting beyond capacity	216	2
Lack of coordinated teamwork	117	1
Working too near other person	33	1
Other unsafe acts	189	2
Cuts, lacerations, abrasions, puncture sustained through	1,101	12
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold	805	9
Handling material with burrs, etc.	87	1
Working too near other person	80	1
Other unsafe acts	159	1
Burns, sustained through	215	2
Having poor grip, taking wrong hold	108	1
Working too near others, and unsafe handling	107	1
Amputations	127	2
Concussion of the brain	61	1
Other injuries	47	(1)
Unclassified, insufficient data	296	1

¹ Less than half of 1 percent.

The nature of injury that resulted from the above unsafe acts and the part of the body affected by the injury are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Shipyard Accidents Involving Unsafe Handling of Materials or Equipment, Classified by Nature of Injury and by Part of Body Affected*

Nature of injury and part of body affected	Number	Per cent	Nature of injury and part of body affected	Number	Percent
Total	9,173	100	Fractures	1,638	18
Spains and strains	2,437	37	Feet, toes	888	10
Back, hips	2,103	23	Hands, fingers	373	4
Internal organs (including hernias)	556	6	Ribs, shoulders	97	1
Ribs, shoulders	331	4	Other parts of the body ^a	280	3
Arms, wrist, hands	215	2	Cuts, lacerations, abrasions, punctures	1,101	12
Legs, ankles, feet	202	2	Hands, fingers	553	6
Other parts of the body	30	(1)	Head, skull	201	2
Contusions, bruises, hematoma	2,251	25	Leg, ankle, knee	157	2
Feet, toes	786	9	Other parts of the body ^a	190	2
Hands, fingers	489	5	Burns, body, general	215	2
Legs, ankles, knees	333	4	Amputations	127	2
Head, skull	203	2	Fingers	118	2
Back, hips	170	2	Other parts of the body ^a	9	(1)
Ribs, shoulders	155	2	Concussion of the brain	61	1
Other parts of the body ^b	115	1	Other injuries	47	(1)
			Unclassified—insufficient data	296	3

^a Less than half of 1 percent.

^b Includes 104 bruises of the arm, elbow, and wrist.

^c Includes 93 fractures of arm, elbow, wrist; 83 of the leg; 71 of the skull; and 32 of the spine and hips.

^d Includes 95 cuts and lacerations of feet and toes; 69 of the arm.

^e Includes 6 toe amputations.



Industrial Injuries, May 1944

INJURIES experienced at work disabled approximately 65,000 employees of manufacturing plants during May, with a resulting loss of 1,300,000 man-days of production. This brings the total estimate of disabling injuries in manufacturing to 313,000 for the first 5 months of 1944 and the total of time lost for the period to 6,260,000 man-days. For comparison, the estimates for the first 5 months of 1943 totaled 319,000 injuries and 6,380,000 man-days lost.

In terms of frequency rates, the May record shows some improvement in comparison with April and represents a break in the rising trend apparent for the first 4 months of 1944. In May the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate was 19.8 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked, compared with 18.0 for January, 18.9 for February, 19.3 for March, and 20.2 for April. The cumulative all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate for the first 5 months of 1944 was 19.2, as compared with 20.4 for the same period of 1943.

The May estimates are based upon reports from 11,100 manufacturing plants. These reports listed a total of 24,524 disabling injuries, of which 0.5 percent were known to have been fatal and 4.3 percent had developed into permanent physical impairments up to the time of reporting. It is reasonably certain, however, that the proportion of serious cases will be increased to about 5 percent when the final outcome of the injuries presumed to be only temporary at the end of May becomes known. The reporting plants employed 6,110,000 workers during May, or nearly 38 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimate of total manufacturing employment for the month. The estimate of time lost is based upon the conservative allowance of 20 days for each disabling injury. The frequency rates given are based upon the entire volume of reports and are not weighted.

Despite the slight decline in the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rate from April to May, there were more increases in the individual industry frequency rates than there were decreases. Thirty-five industries had increases of at least a full point in their May rates as compared with April. Fourteen of these were significant increases of 5 or more frequency-rate points. On the other hand there were 33 decreases of 1 or more points, of which 11 were decreases of 5 or more points. For 26 industries the May averages were higher than those for any previous months of 1944. In 12 industries, however, the May rates were the lowest thus far recorded in 1944. The lowest industry average in May was for the plants manufacturing soap and glycerin, which had only 5.7 disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked during the month. The highest industry average in May was 57.9 for the plants manufacturing wooden containers.

Because of the longer period covered, the cumulative frequency rates presented in the accompanying table give a more representative indication of the relative hazards prevailing in different industries than do the rates for any single month. Of the 89 listed industries, 7 had 5-month cumulative averages of over 40 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked, as follows: Wooden containers, 54.8; sawmills, 54.4; plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, 53.0; sheet-metal work, 52.2; planing mills, 43.2; foundries, iron and steel, 42.4; and miscellaneous lumber products, 40.2. In contrast, 11 industries, had cumulative rates of less than 10 for the first 5 months of 1944: Explosives, 5.1; women's clothing, 5.4; rayon and allied products (chemical), 6.8; sighting and fire-control equipment, 8.5; cement, 8.6; soap and glycerin, 8.6; radios and phonographs, 8.7; aircraft, 9.3; small-arms ammunition, 9.3; petroleum refining, 9.3; and iron and steel, 9.5.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1944,
With Cumulative Rates for 1944*

Industry ¹	May 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of estab- lish- ments	Fre- quency rate ²	1944: January- May cumulative ³	1943: 12-month cumulative ⁴
Agricultural machinery and tractors	44	26.2	22.4	11.5
Aircraft	53	10.6	9.3	8.1
Aircraft parts	253	10.1	11.9	14.4
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over	309	30.4	24.4	36.1
Ammunition, small-arms	12	6.9	9.3	10.0
Baking	9	19.8	15.4	(?)
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	28	25.9	31.1	(?)
Book and job printing	40	11.7	11.7	(?)
Boots and shoes, other than rubber	276	13.7	15.4	14.0
Canning and preserving	52	19.8	22.1	18.0
Cement	87	9.0	8.6	8.1
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	42	13.8	14.6	(?)
Chemicals, industrial	281	18.7	16.1	10.2
Clothing, men's	482	10.3	11.5	8.1
Clothing, women's	367	5.8	5.4	5.1
Commercial and household machines	37	24.5	18.9	(?)
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	106	51.0	36.8	(?)
Confectionery	7	17.7	15.4	(?)
Construction and mining machinery	92	31.6	25.8	31.1
Cotton goods	184	14.3	14.5	14.0
Cutlery and edge tools	23	30.3	27.6	24.1
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	60	12.7	19.9	22.3
Dyeing and finishing	47	27.1	24.9	(?)
Electrical equipment and supplies	46	10.9	11.1	11.1

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates¹ for Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1944,
With Cumulative Rates for 1944—Continued

Industry ²	May 1944		Frequency rate	
	Number of establish- ments	Fre- quency rate ³	1944: January- May cumula- tive ⁴	1943: 12-month cumula- tive ⁴
Engines and turbines.....	37	9.6	12.2	18.3
Explosives.....	67	8.9	5.1	11.9
Fabricated structural steel.....	94	41.7	34.5	33.0
Flour, feed, and grain-mill products.....	8	22.4	23.8	(*)
Food products, not elsewhere classified.....	32	23.7	22.6	(*)
Food products—machinery.....	24	30.1	33.3	34.5
Forgings, iron and steel.....	120	38.8	34.2	39.9
Foundries, iron and steel.....	549	42.6	42.4	42.1
Furniture, except metal.....	60	28.1	30.6	28.1
General industrial machinery.....	567	22.5	23.3	24.3
Glass.....	41	18.6	19.1	17.9
Gums and related equipment.....	93	17.1	18.5	17.6
Hardware.....	31	23.1	20.6	24.3
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	58	26.2	32.2	34.2
Iron and steel.....	195	9.4	9.5	9.8
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified.....	300	30.6	35.2	(*)
Knit goods.....	70	10.8	10.5	(*)
Lathing.....	26	26.0	28.3	(*)
Machine shops, general.....	196	25.9	28.9	26.2
Metalworking machinery.....	624	17.9	17.6	18.9
Miscellaneous lumber products, not elsewhere classified.....	36	42.0	40.2	(*)
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	341	15.8	17.1	(*)
Motor vehicles.....	101	13.8	12.1	12.4
Motor-vehicle parts.....	57	29.5	26.1	25.5
Nonferrous metal products.....	551	26.1	25.8	23.7
Ordnance and accessories, not elsewhere classified.....	30	23.8	20.4	(*)
Paints and varnishes.....	56	29.4	21.7	20.2
Paper.....	205	31.2	29.1	31.7
Paper boxes and containers.....	418	26.7	25.3	26.7
Paper products, not elsewhere classified.....	19	23.9	18.5	(*)
Paper and pulp (integrated).....	83	25.8	26.3	26.4
Petroleum refining.....	130	8.1	9.3	(*)
Planing mills.....	37	48.9	43.2	53.8
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products.....	79	54.6	53.0	44.0
Plumbers' supplies.....	20	22.5	17.0	18.2
Pottery.....	39	23.7	18.9	(*)
Radios and phonographs.....	142	8.4	8.7	7.6
Railroad equipment.....	42	24.3	21.6	20.5
Rayon and allied products (chemical).....	11	13.2	6.8	7.8
Rubber boots and shoes.....	14	12.7	17.6	(*)
Rubber and rubber products, not elsewhere classified.....	80	18.7	16.0	(*)
Rubber tires.....	35	11.7	12.9	13.7
Sawmills.....	34	62.0	54.4	62.4
Screws and screw-machine products.....	47	33.6	28.6	(*)
Sheet-metal work.....	37	51.1	52.2	(*)
Shipbuilding.....	229	26.5	24.9	28.7
Signaling and fire-control equipment.....	25	13.2	8.5	6.6
Silk and rayon products, not elsewhere classified.....	46	10.9	14.8	(*)
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	151	31.2	31.2	35.7
Small arms.....	48	21.3	13.5	11.5
Smelting and refining (nonferrous).....	116	28.0	23.6	28.5
Sap and glycerin.....	10	5.7	8.6	8.5
Special industry machinery.....	78	35.7	23.4	22.7
Stamped and pressed metal products.....	222	37.3	30.7	31.1
Steam fittings and apparatus.....	46	23.9	26.9	33.6
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified.....	64	15.0	13.0	(*)
Tanks, military.....	10	16.0	12.2	12.6
Tank parts, military.....	43	22.3	25.6	18.3
Textile machinery.....	9	35.5	35.3	(*)
Textile and textile-mill products, not elsewhere classified.....	168	25.1	19.5	(*)
Tin cans and other tinware.....	20	20.4	19.1	18.3
Tools, except edge tools.....	63	27.4	28.5	25.5
Wire and wire products.....	143	26.3	22.6	21.7
Wooden containers.....	50	57.9	54.8	(*)
Woollen goods.....	154	20.5	19.1	(*)

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.³ Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.⁴ Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive months.

Preliminary rates for year subject to revision on basis of more comprehensive annual survey.

⁵ Not available.

Social Security

Proposed National Health Service in Great Britain

THE British Government has announced that it intends to establish a comprehensive health service, for everyone in the country. Following the issuance of the Beveridge report¹ in which a complete medical-care service was advocated, but which did not discuss the methods of organizing such a service, representative groups were formed to consider the question. In order to present the conclusions of these groups for public discussion in Parliament and elsewhere, a White Paper² outlining the proposed plan was presented to Parliament by the Ministry of Health and the Department of Health for Scotland, early in 1944.

The proposed system, which is to provide all necessary health care, without charge, for everyone in the population, irrespective of means, age, sex, or occupation, will combine public responsibility and a full service with the essential elements of personal and professional freedom for the patient and the doctor. There will be no compulsion into the service either for patient or for doctor and no interference with the making of private arrangements at the patient's expense, if anyone still prefers to do so. Within the system, there will be freedom of choice of physicians, and the doctor will be free to follow his professional methods in his own individual way without outside clinical interference. The personal doctor-patient relationship is to be preserved and the whole service founded on the "family doctor" idea.

The service will cover the entire field of medical advice and attention, including general-practitioner service and that of specialists and consultants of all kinds, as well as hospital and sanatorium care; it will also include the auxiliary services of nursing, midwifery, and other branches belonging with medical care. It is not expected that all services can be fully implemented at once. A full dental service for the whole population, for example, cannot be provided since there are not at present, and will not be for some years, enough dentists in the country to provide it. Similar, but perhaps less-acute difficulties, will be presented in providing a full service in ophthalmology, and the inclusion of the mental services will also present some difficulty. The aim will be, however, to reduce the distinctions drawn between mental ill-health and physical ill-health.

Present Services

Collective provisions for medical care now exist under the National Health Insurance scheme, the poor law, and various special services

¹ Social Insurance and Allied Services, Report by Sir William Beveridge (American edition, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1942). For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 272).

² A National Health Service (London, Ministry of Health and Department of Health for Scotland, 1944. Cmnd. 6602).

for children and for certain occupational groups. The National Health Insurance system, covering wage earners and salaried workers earning less than £420 a year, provides to insured persons the services of a general medical practitioner, drugs prescribed by the doctor, and a limited class of medical and surgical appliances, all without charge. The system does not normally cover consultant's or hospital services.

There are two distinct systems of hospital provision in the country—the voluntary hospitals and the public or municipal hospitals. The voluntary hospitals, of which there are more than a thousand in England and Wales, are independent institutions and vary widely in size and function. These hospitals are maintained by voluntary subscriptions, donations, and endowments. The other arm of the present hospital services—the hospitals provided directly by public authority out of public funds—originated in measures for protecting the sick poor, and were later extended as a result of measures taken to combat the spread of epidemic infectious diseases. In recent years the scope of these hospitals has been broadened to provide a general hospital service for the general public. Under the wartime Emergency Hospital Scheme, considerable expansion and coordination of hospital facilities has been achieved.

The local authorities further provide medical and hospital care for persons suffering from specified diseases such as tuberculosis and venereal diseases and also provide for the care and treatment of persons suffering from mental disorders.

Home nursing forms a most important branch of the health services and is provided for the most part through district nursing associations organized on a voluntary basis. Maternity and child welfare service, developed particularly since the last war, is provided by local welfare authorities. This service is closely connected with the school medical service established under the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907, which provided a regular system of medical inspection and empowered authorities to provide certain types of treatment. Since that time, a system of increasing medical inspection and care of the health of the school child has been steadily built up.

Dental benefit is available to about two-thirds of the 21,000,000 persons insured under the National Health Insurance scheme. The benefit does not take the form of direct public provision of dental treatment, but provides a money payment of the whole or a part of the approved cost of treatment. Only about 6 or 7 percent of the persons eligible for treatment claim it in any given year. Public provision of ophthalmic services is very similar to that of dental service.

In addition to these special services there are various medical activities associated with industry and employment carried on under the Factory Acts and by private employers. These services are not primarily for personal medical treatment and advice to the individual worker, but are designed as an integral part of the highly technical machinery for promoting, fundamentally through the employer, safety, health, and welfare in factories and other premises within the scope of the Inspectorate.

Proposed Organization of the New Service

It is proposed that central responsibility to Parliament for the administration of the new service shall be vested in the British Minister of Health and the Secretary of State for Scotland, respectively. A special professional and expert body, independent of the Minister, will be created, which it is suggested might be called the Central Health Services Council. Since there cannot be dual responsibility for the service, the Council will be consultative and advisory and not executive. It will be primarily medical in make-up, but experts in other fields such as hospital administration, nursing, etc., will be included.

A Central Medical Board, which will be an executive body composed mainly of members of the medical profession, will be responsible for the general-practitioner service, under the general direction of the Ministry of Health.

It is contemplated that the present local government system—the county and county-borough councils—will be retained as the basis of the local administration of the scheme. The councils will operate in the normal local government areas where possible, but will combine as joint authorities over larger areas where necessary. Areas of suitable size and resources for the operation of a full hospital service of all kinds will be designated by the Minister after consultation with local interests. The new joint authority, in addition to operating this hospital service, will also be charged with preparing an area plan for the health service as a whole. It will be the duty of the joint authorities to secure a complete hospital and consultant service for their area, including sanatoria, isolation, mental health services, and ambulance and auxiliary services. This will be done both by direct provision and by contractual arrangements with voluntary hospitals or with other joint authorities. They will also prepare a plan for related services of all kinds, which will require approval by the Minister. All hospitals, municipal or voluntary, taking part in the service will observe certain national conditions as to remuneration of nurses, appointment of consultants, etc.

The Minister, together with the new Central Medical Board, will make the main arrangements for a general-practitioner service for the country. This will provide that anyone who wishes to do so can choose a "family doctor" and obtain the advice and treatment of that doctor at home, in the consulting room, or in a health center, as the case may be. The central and national arrangements will cover terms of service, remuneration of doctors from public funds and other general aspects of organization, and the contracts of the individual doctors with the Central Medical Board. It will be necessary to regulate, to a certain extent, the areas in which doctors may practice, since, with the whole population entitled to a general practitioner service, the Government must see to it that there is a proper distribution of medical resources.

It is intended that there shall be a greater development of group practice at health centers, and that the new system will be based on a combination of this type of practice and of separate practice. Group practice will be tried out on a large scale, principally in the more densely populated areas, and the experience gained will determine the extent to which the change-over to the new form of practice can

and should be made. Where the establishment of health centers is proposed by the joint authority, such centers will normally be provided by the county or county-borough council.

It is not planned to introduce a universal salaried system for doctors, but in general those working in health centers will be on a salaried basis while in other cases payment may be on a basis of capitation fees, as at present under the National Health Insurance scheme.

In any event whether payment is on a salaried or part-salaried system or on a basis of capitation fees, two principles will have to be observed in the arrangements made. First, the doctors taking part in the scheme must be assured of an adequate and appropriate income. Second, the aim must be to achieve a system flexible enough to allow for proper variations attributable to extra qualifications and extra energy and interest, as well as representing the reasonable and normal expectations of general practice at all its stages.

Certain differences are necessary in the administrative arrangements and reorganization of the new health service in Scotland, as compared with England and Wales. The financial arrangements, with one important exception, will be on broadly similar lines in the two countries. The exception relates to the provision, equipment, and maintenance of health centers; these, in Scotland, will be the responsibility of the central authority, and the costs, therefore, will fall on the Exchequer.

Financing the New Service

The total annual cost of the new health service is estimated at £132,000,000 for England and Wales and £15,800,000 for Scotland. These costs will be met both from central funds and from local and national taxes. It has not yet been determined what the amount set aside out of the contributions under a social-insurance scheme will be, but the Beveridge report suggested the amount should be £40,000,000, representing 27.0 percent of the total cost of the system. In England and Wales, 36.6 percent of the cost would be paid by the taxpayers (national taxes) and 36.4 percent by the rate payers (local taxes); in Scotland the percentages would be 39.0 and 34.0, respectively.

Discharged Soldiers

Canadian Provisions for Veterans¹

THE Canadian act of June 30, 1944, authorized the establishment of a Department of Veterans' Affairs to deal with all matters pertaining to the welfare of veterans. The act is to come into effect on a date to be set by the Governor in Council. The functions of the Department of Pensions and National Health are to be divided between the Department of Veterans' Affairs and the Department of National Health and Welfare which was established by act of July 24, 1944. Beginning late in 1940, the special veterans' welfare division of the Department of Pensions and National Health had dealt with veterans' needs. Under the 1944 acts, the activities formerly belonging to the veterans' welfare division will be performed by the Department of Veterans' Affairs. Under the organization as it exists, pending the effective date of the acts, veterans' welfare officers are stationed in discharge centers, where they interview servicemen on their release from military duty and advise them of their various rights and benefits as veterans. Such welfare officers are housed at the Employment Service offices, where they also assist veterans who are seeking employment. The measures in effect for the benefit of Canadian veterans are summarized below.

Discharge Benefits

On discharge, a serviceman receives clothing allowances, mustering-out pay, and transportation home or to the point of his enlistment. The present clothing allowance is \$100 and the rehabilitation grant consists of 1 month's pay and dependents' allowances. Special provisions were recently made for persons "who have enlisted or who have been at any time obligated to service anywhere." Transportation to any other point in Canada may be substituted for transportation home, providing it entails no additional cost. Free hospitalization and treatment are provided for physically fit veterans for 12 months after date of their leaving the service.

Reemployment Measures

Legislation enacted on August 1, 1942, provides the right of reinstatement in civil employment for members of the armed forces (including merchant seamen) who were privately employed before

¹ Data from Canada, House of Commons Debates (Ottawa), June 30, July 24, and August 11, 1944; Proclamations and Orders in Council (Ottawa), vol. 1 (1940), and vol. 5 (1942); Act to Establish a Department of Veterans Affairs as passed by the House of Commons, June 20, 1944 (Bill 83), Ottawa 1944; Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), December 1940, January 1941, August 1942, and April and June 1944; International Labor Office Legislative Series (Montreal), 1941 and 1942; International Labor Review (Montreal), January 1944; Industrial Canada (Toronto), July 1944; Report of Lewis Clark, United States Embassy (Ottawa), February 12, 1944 (No. 705).

enlistment. A person who worked for an employer for at least 3 months immediately prior to military service, or who had recognized employee status, must be reinstated, taking into account seniority in the individual establishment. The applicant must request reinstatement within 3 months after discharge in Canada from the service or from hospital treatment following discharge (within 4 months if discharged overseas or from hospital treatment following discharge overseas). Once an offer of reinstatement has been made, he must present himself for employment at the time and place designated by the employer. If reinstatement in the applicant's own position is not "reasonably practicable" for the employer, owing to changed circumstances (such as changed production program), or if the person is physically or mentally incapable of performing his former work, the most favorable position available must be offered. In case of any proceedings against the employer for the violation of the requirements concerning reinstatement, it shall be a defense for him to prove that the applicant did not make application as specified above, that he did not accept employment offered to him as required by the act, that he was physically or mentally incapable of performing any work available in the employer's service, or that his employment prior to his service in the armed forces had been in place of an employee previously accepted for service in the armed forces, who had been reinstated in his employment. After reinstatement, no ex-serviceman can be dismissed within 6 months without reasonable cause.

On conviction of a violation of the act, an employer is liable to a penalty of not to exceed \$500, and in addition the court is to order him to pay the person concerned a sum not exceeding 12 weeks' pay at the rate he was receiving when he left employment to enter the service.

An order in council (P.C. 2584) of September 7, 1939, protects civil servants called into active service. Such public servants are regarded as on leave without pay from their civil positions during the period of service with the armed forces. Permanent employees are to return to their civil positions, and seniority rights and statutory increases are not to be affected by the period of military service. Temporary employees must be returned to a position comparable to that held before entering service, and their right to permanent appointment is not to be affected. If the individual had been a contributor to the Superannuation Fund, contributions due for his period of active service are considered paid. The regulations do not apply if the person does not return to his position or apply to the Civil Service Commission for employment within 6 months of his discharge.

Former Provincial employees have reinstatement rights, but details are not available.

No legislation requires general preference for veterans. Preference in the Dominion civil service is granted, including exemption from age limits and physical requirements and appointment over civilians with higher ratings. Some Provinces and municipalities have also established preferences. Each Government war contract requires the employment of a "reasonable" quota of ex-servicemen.

Training of Physically Fit Veterans

Vocational training is provided for physically fit veterans, under a program designated, until recently, as war-emergency training. The basic purpose of this program is the general training of workers for essential jobs. Training is given in plants, special training centers, and technical schools. Early in 1944 the name of the program was changed to Canadian Vocational Training, apparently with a view to its continuance after the war. The extent to which training will be available in the post-war period to those who are not veterans has not been indicated. However, the policy for that part of the program devoted to training ex-service personnel was stated in February 1944. The Minister of Pensions and National Health said that the keynote of the veterans' rehabilitation policy would be "training for those who can be helped thereby." The principle was stated to be that any discharged member of the forces who can be helped to obtain employment by a course of vocational training is entitled to receive it at Government expense and to receive allowances for the support of his dependents during the training period. The same principle will apply to university training; anyone who can qualify for entry to a university within 15 months after discharge can be given training for as many months as he spent in the service. If the individual makes outstanding progress, he may be given additional time in the university and post-graduate work, if necessary.

Allowances Under Post-Discharge Reestablishment Order

Subsistence allowances are provided for by the Post-Discharge Reestablishment Order of 1941 (P.C. 7633) for all persons discharged from the armed forces who are taking vocational training or completing an educational course. The same order provides for allowances for persons who are awaiting returns from an independent enterprise such as farming, who are temporarily incapacitated from accepting work or training because of a nonpensionable disability, or who are out of work. The allowances payable to veterans continuing their education or taking vocational training were recently raised to \$60 a month for a single man and \$80 monthly for a man and his wife; the other veterans entitled to allowances receive \$50 if single and \$70 if married. Certain extra expenses involved in training and education as well as the desire to encourage veterans to take training are responsible for the variation in allowances. Veterans who are in training also receive free transportation to and from training centers, and married veterans who must live away from home are given lodging allowances. Dependents' allowances are also authorized.

The Post-Discharge Order extends unemployment compensation to veterans who have been gainfully employed in insurable employment for 15 weeks within any 12 months following discharge. The Government pays the Unemployment Insurance Fund the amount of the employer's and employee's contributions for the period of the latter's service in the armed forces after July 1, 1941, the effective date of the Unemployment Insurance Act.

Veterans' Land Act

The Veterans' Land Act of 1942 subsidizes qualified veterans who want to return to farming or commercial fishing. Veterans who served in a theater of actual warfare, who have 12 months' Canadian service, or who are receiving a disability pension, may be established in full-time farming if they have had practical experience in farm operations. Ex-servicemen with limited agricultural experience may be subsidized on part-time farming near industrial or commercial employment from which the main income is to be derived. Those who are qualified for commercial fishing may receive assistance to buy homes and engage in commercial fishing as a means of earning a living. By early summer of 1944, application of this program was limited, owing to scarcity of material and equipment and also to the desire to insure that servicemen who are still fighting overseas shall have equal opportunity to obtain good land. The main activities have been the purchase of land for post-war settlement, organization of supplies and materials, and perfection of the administrative machinery in readiness for post-war requests for assistance.

Provisions for Disabled Veterans

Disabled veterans are entitled to disability pensions. The scale of pensions is based on rank, number of dependents, and the degree of disability measured in terms of percent of ordinary working capacity. Pensions are available for all disabilities incurred by servicemen outside of Canada. If the military service is in Canada only, the injury or disease must arise from or be connected with military service. Free medical treatment is available to the disabled for the rest of their lives.

Training for the disabled is provided by the Department of Pensions and National Health. This function will also be performed by the Department of Veterans' Affairs when the new organization plan goes into effect. Disabled trainees receive disability pensions in addition to training allowances, although a slight reduction in the allowance is made.

Special sections have been authorized in the 17 largest Employment Service offices to handle the placement of handicapped persons, whether veterans or not. Staff members of such offices are being trained for this work and specialists are to be appointed in each of the five regional Employment and Selective Service offices, to supervise the work in their respective regions.

Cooperation

Production by Cooperative Federations in 1943

Summary

BY the middle of 1944 more than 100 productive plants were being operated by central federations connected with the consumers' cooperative movement in the United States. Eighty-five of these plants, for which data were available, in 1943 produced goods valued at more than \$1 million dollars, or more than twice the amount in 1941. Farm supplies accounted for over half the value in 1943 and petroleum products for about a third. Purely consumers' goods formed 6.3 percent of the total.

The geographical distribution of the various productive enterprises operated by central cooperative organizations is shown on the accompanying map.

According to the Cooperative League of the U. S. A., cooperatives go into production for four reasons: (1) To assure a source of supply for the goods they distribute; (2) to break the hold of monopolies, trusts, or cartels; (3) to lower the price of commodities where the price has been held at artificially high levels; and (4) to control the quality of goods handled.¹ It appears that each of these factors has been an influence in various cases in the United States. The most powerful motivation in recent years has been the desire of the movement to become self-sufficient to as great an extent as possible and to obtain for the members the large financial benefits that accrue in manufacture.

A great many retail associations with farmer membership have feed mills, a few urban cooperatives have bakeries, and one or two local associations manufacture sausage. With these exceptions, however, most of the cooperative production in the United States is carried on by the cooperative wholesale associations, either individually or jointly, or by other central organizations of the federated type.

Expansion and New Facilities

Expansion in 1943.—More productive facilities were acquired by the consumers' cooperative movement in 1943 than in any previous year.²

The greatest expansion took place in the production of petroleum and its products. Altogether, five petroleum refineries were purchased by regional cooperative wholesale associations, either singly or in conjunction with other wholesales. According to figures given in

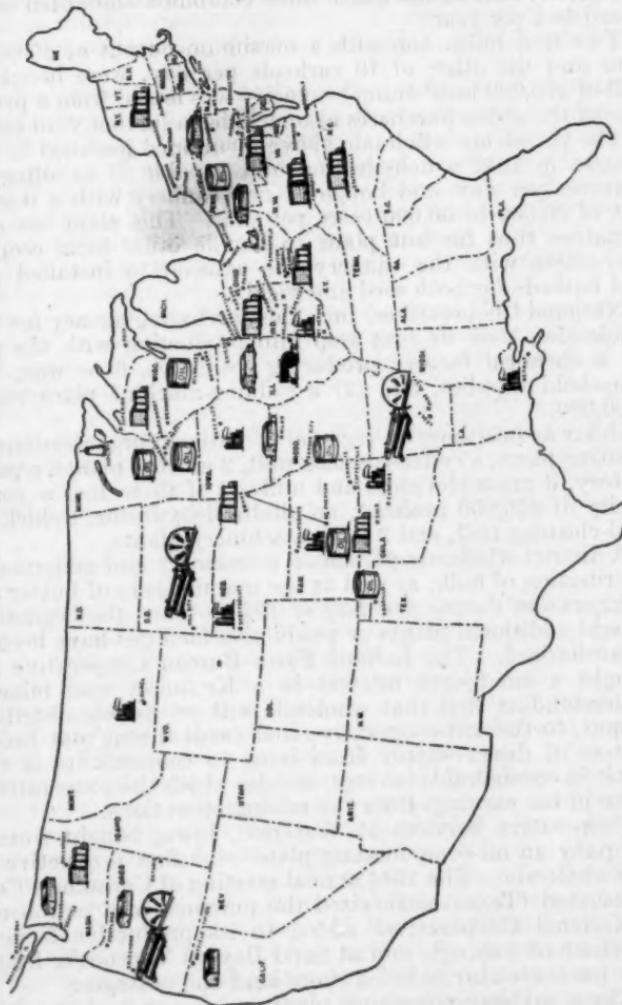
¹ Consumers' Cooperation (New York), December 1943, p. 138.

² For purchases by individual associations, see Monthly Labor Review for March 1944 (pp. 561-665).

the cooperative press, these refineries represented a total investment of \$10,971,500. Three of these plants, for which capacity was given, are capable of turning out a total of 281,000,000 gallons of refined fuel yearly, and one also has a lubricating-oil department with a capacity of 10,000 gallons. The maximum output for the other two

PRODUCTIVE ENTERPRISES OF COOPERATIVE FEDERATIONS

AS OF JUNE 1944



plants was not reported, but one was stated to be capable of handling 4,500 barrels of crude oil per day; the fifth plant was considerably smaller. A furfural plant for improving the quality of petroleum products was under construction at the end of 1943, at a cost of about \$165,000.

These acquisitions also included 474 miles of pipeline. The largest purchase also involved an oil-compounding plant, 270 oil wells, and

104,408 acres of oil-bearing lands in Illinois, Kansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. In addition, the wholesale which pioneered in petroleum production several years ago, and had 12 oil wells in operation at the end of 1942, brought in 4 more wells in 1943.

Five sawmills were purchased. For two of these the capacity was not given; that of the other three combined amounted to 41,000,000 board feet per year.

Two feed mills, one with a maximum output of 100,000 tons per year and the other of 10 carloads per day, were bought. A third mill of 100,000 tons' annual capacity was leased from a private owner. One of the above purchases also included a lumber yard and coal yard.

The petroleum wholesale above mentioned installed in the cannery bought in 1942 a dehydration unit capable of handling 35 tons of potatoes per day, and bought a new cannery with a maximum output of 30,000 to 50,000 cases per year. This plant has canned only tomatoes thus far but plans to handle other local crops also. In connection with the cannery the association installed greenhouses and hotbeds for both seed and yield.

National Cooperatives, Inc., the purchasing agency for the regional wholesales, took its first step into production with the purchase of (1) a chemical factory producing cosmetics, floor wax, and related household supplies, and (2) a milking-machine plant costing about \$200,000.

Other acquisitions by regional or national organizations included a printing plant, a coffee-roasting unit, 2 glucose plants, a potato-starch factory, 3 grain elevators and mills (2 of these had a combined capacity of 410,000 bushels), an alfalfa dehydrator, a chick hatchery, a seed-cleaning mill, and 2 farm-machinery plants.

A district wholesale purchased a creamery and undertook the retail distribution of milk, as well as the manufacture of butter and cheese.

Expansion during first half of 1944.—Since the beginning of 1944, several additional plants or productive facilities have been purchased or authorized. The Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association bought a one-fourth interest in a Kentucky coal mine, with the understanding that that wholesale will act as sole distributor of the output, to the 120 cooperative coal yards throughout Indiana. The system of direct supply from mine to cooperatives is expected to result in considerable savings, besides which the cooperatives will also share in the earnings from the mining operations.

Cooperative Services at Waterloo, Iowa, bought from a private company an oil-compounding plant—the first productive venture of this wholesale. The 1944 annual meeting of Consumers Cooperatives Associated (Texas) authorized the purchase of a petroleum refinery.

National Cooperatives added to its productive facilities by the purchase of a shingle mill at Sand Bay on Vancouver Island (B. C.). The purchase also included shore land and cottages.

Three soybean-processing plants were acquired in 1944—by the Farmers Union Central Exchange, and the Ohio and Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Associations, respectively; a similar plant was planned by Consumers Cooperative Association (Missouri) which it was expected would be in operation by the time the crop was ready. The products of these plants are high-protein cattle feed and edible oil. The Ohio wholesale also bought another fertilizer plant.

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Including wells previously drilled and those acquired in 1943, by the end of 1943 Consumers Cooperative Association had 286 oil wells in production and leases on 104,408 acres of oil-bearing land. Since the beginning of 1944 the association has been drilling 5 wells; one of these came in early in February, but another proved to be a "duster" and was abandoned. The organization is operating for the Federal Government an aviation-gasoline refinery. Early in 1944 the association established a geological and exploration division, with 5 full-time geologists.

Another development during the first half of 1944 was the formation of the Atlantic Seed Stocks Cooperative, the members of which are the Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, Southern States Cooperative, Eastern States Farmers Exchange, and the Cooperative G. L. F. Exchange. The new association will produce foundation seed corn adapted to production in the Eastern States. This is, of course, purely a producer (not consumer) activity and is noted here only because of the fact that cooperative wholesales handling consumer goods are among its members.

A meeting of the grocery committee of National Cooperatives, in July 1944, voted to ask the parent organization to study the possibilities of acquiring flour mills sufficient to supply the entire needs of the consumers' cooperatives.

Thus far it has been impossible to operate at capacity some of the cooperative oil refineries in the Middle West, owned by C. C. A. and other wholesales, because of the shortage of crude oil in this area as a result of diversion to the refineries making aviation gasoline. To some extent the situation has been met by utilizing crude oil from the Texas field.

Type and Value of Goods Produced

As table 1 indicates, the reporting associations manufactured goods valued at over 31 million dollars in 1943. Purely consumer goods (bakery goods, butter, cheese, meat products, flour, etc.) formed only 6.3 percent of the total value. Of commodities used for both consumer and producer purposes, petroleum products (and operations connected with their production) accounted for 32.4 percent and paint and lumber for 5.5 percent. Farm supplies constituted 54.9 percent.

The table covers 85 plants. It does not include figures for some of the more recent acquisitions, which were not under cooperative ownership or on a cooperative basis during the full year. Among such enterprises not included were the plants of the National Cooperative Refinery Association, the milking-machine plant of National Cooperatives, the feed mill of Consumers Cooperatives Associated at Edroy, Tex., and the cultivator plant of National Farm Machinery Cooperative, at Bellevue, Ohio. In fact, none of the operations of the National Farm Machinery Cooperative are included, as that association has been occupied in building tanks for the Federal Government.

As regards the productive departments of the wholesales, in many cases the earnings from production are not separable from those of the distributive business.⁴ The productive earnings of the few organizations for which this information was available exceeded \$1,000,000 in 1943 and member associations benefited by returns amounting to slightly over \$748,000 on their patronage.

⁴Data on cooperative wholesaling operations will appear in a later issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

TABLE 1.—Value of Goods Produced Cooperatively in 1943, by Product

Product	Value of goods produced	Net earnings	Amount of patronage refunds
All products	\$31,104,255	\$1,085,274	\$746,286
Food			
Bakery products	1,958,096	12,406	7,015
Butter and cheese	189,622		
Meat products	495,847	(1)	(1)
Flour, cereals, etc.	59,436	(1)	(1)
Canned goods	416,154	12,406	7,015
Coffee roasted	79,709	(1)	(1)
Crude oil	87,268		
Pipe-line operations	31,340	10,524	(1)
Refined oils	1,672,756	58,102	(1)
Lubricating oil	6,743,901	505,939	415,381
Grease	1,358,479	(1)	(1)
Natural gas	223,864	(1)	(1)
Paint	8,272	(1)	(1)
Printing	1,351,782	91,756	70,986
Store shelving	326,950	8,793	4,622
Feed and seed	5,316	(1)	(1)
Fertilizer	9,579,646	176,399	132,087
Chicks	7,201,511	132,195	58,446
Barn equipment	246,247	(1)	(1)
Lumber	35,644	(2)	(2)
	360,502	(1)	(1)

¹ Data not available separately; included with wholesales' distributive operations.² Included with refined oils.³ Not available separately; some included with "paint."⁴ Includes some earnings and refunds on manufacture of paint and barn equipment.⁵ Some earnings and refunds not available separately for printing; included with wholesale's distributive operations.

That the productive enterprises are very profitable is indicated by the fact that their earnings pay back the initial cost fairly soon. Thus, the cosmetics plant of National Cooperatives paid for itself in 6 months and the milking-machine plant in 10 months. The refinery of Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association was paid for out of 1 year's gains, as was also the jointly owned flour and feed mill in North Carolina. A similar mill in Ohio, owned by three regional wholesales, paid for itself in 16 months.

The value of the various commodities produced by individual organizations in 1943 is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Production by Central Cooperative Organizations, 1943

Association	Goods produced	Value of goods produced	Net earnings	Patronage refunds
All associations		\$31,104,255	\$1,085,274	\$746,286
Productive departments of wholesales				
Illinois: Illinois Farm Supply Co.	Feed, seed, hay	3,412,407	162,838	138,886
Indiana: Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	Refined oils	2,058,755		
	Printing	23,068	(1)	(1)
	Fertilizer	2,072,341		
	Chicks	211,257		
	Butter and cheese	84,335	(1)	(1)
Michigan: Northland Cooperative Federation	Refined oils	1,995,944		
Minnesota:	Pipe-line and tank cars	104,890	(1)	(1)
Midland Cooperative Wholesale	Natural gas	8,272		
	Feed	33,545		
Farmers Union Central Exchange	Refined oils; lubricating oil	(1)	(1)	(1)
Minnesota Farm Bureau Service Co.	Feed and seed	139,432	(1)	(1)
	Fertilizer	55,821		
Range Cooperative Federation	Meat products	59,436	(1)	(1)
	Butter and cheese	411,512	(1)	(1)

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Production by Central Cooperative Organizations, 1943—Continued

Association	Goods produced	Value of goods produced	Net earnings	Patronage refunds
Missouri: Consumers Cooperative Association	Crude oil.....	\$31,340	\$10,524	\$19,057
	Pipe line.....	1,567,876	58,102	\$44,952
	Refined oils.....	2,369,362	595,939	\$15,344
	Lubricating oil.....	492,227		
	Paint.....	104,676		
	Grease.....	223,864	(1)	(1)
	Lumber.....	360,502		
	Canned goods.....	709,709		
	Printing.....	56,536		
	Shelving units.....	5,316	(1)	(1)
New York: Eastern Cooperative Wholesale				
Ohio: Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	Refined oils.....	419,840		
	Chicks.....	34,990	(1)	(1)
	Fertilizer.....	1,959,346		
	Lubricating oil.....	866,252		
	Paint.....	1,247,106	91,756	79,969
	Barn equipment.....	35,644		
Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	Seed.....	159,317		
	Feed.....	1,827,372	(1)	(1)
Washington: Pacific Supply Cooperative	Seed.....	15,884	(1)	(1)
Wisconsin: Wisconsin Cooperative Farm Supply Co.	Flour, antifreeze, etc.....	76,005		
	Feed, seed.....	530,415	(1)	(1)
	Fertilizer.....	128,160		
	Bakery products.....	189,622		
	Coffee roasting.....	87,268		
	Feed.....	1,969,825	(1)	(1)
	Seed.....	50,668		
<i>Productive federations</i>				
Indiana: Cooperative Mills ⁴	Flour.....	187,960		
	Mill feeds.....	86,903	3,300	1,647
	Cereals and special flour.....	36,929		
	Feed.....	1,312,650	13,561	18,561
	Printing.....	142,164	72	
Maryland: Cooperative Fertilizer Service ⁷	Fertilizer.....	1,521,742	97,912	64,800
	do.....	1,163,101	34,283	24,649
	Printing.....	22,839	872	872
Minnesota: Cooperative Printing Association	Feed.....	32,228		
Washington: Grange Milling Co.	Flour.....	115,260	9,097	5,368
	Printing.....	42,076	3,540	3,540
	do.....	40,276	3,469	

¹ Not available separately included in wholesale's distributive operations.

² Value not available; 1,760,100 gallons of refined oils, 66,729,344 gallons of lubricating oil.

³ Includes refunds from crude-oil production.

⁴ Includes refunds from pipe-line operations.

⁵ Owned by 4 member wholesales.

⁶ Owned by a wholesale and an insurance association.

⁷ Owned by 2 member wholesales.

⁸ Owned by 3 member wholesales.

Geographical Location of Cooperative Plants

In table 3 are listed, by States, the productive plants of the central cooperative organizations as of June 1944.

TABLE 3.—*Location of Productive Facilities of Consumers' Cooperatives*

Location of plant	Type of plant	Location of plant	Type of plant
United States			
Arkansas:			
Lois.....	Sawmill.	New York—Continued.	Fertilizer.
Pine Bluff.....	Do.	Hemlock.....	Coffee-roasting.
California: Hatfield Station.....	Seed-cleaning.	New York.....	Seed-cleaning.
Illinois: Chicago.....	Chemicals (cosmetics, etc.).	Syracuse.....	Cannery.
Indiana:		Waterloo.....	Flour and feed.
Auburn.....	Flour and feed.	North Carolina: Statesville.....	
Hammond.....	Do.	Ohio: Alliance.....	Fertilizer.
Indianapolis.....	Seed-cleaning.	Bellefonte.....	Barn-equipment.
Mt. Vernon.....	Fertilizer.	Columbus.....	Paint.
Schererville.....	Oil-compounding.	Dayton.....	Cultivator.
Shelbyville.....	Petroleum refinery.	Glendale.....	Chick hatchery.
Spencer.....	Pipe lines.	Maumee.....	Fertilizer.
Thornstown.....	Fertilizer.	Payne.....	Do.
Iowa: Waterloo.....	Farm-machinery.	Reading.....	Feed.
Kansas:	Printing.	Springfield.....	Fertilizer.
Chanute.....	Serum.	Oklahoma: Cushing.....	Afalfa-dehydrator.
Coffeyville.....	Oil-compounding.	Enid.....	Feed.
McPherson.....	Petroleum refinery.	Oregon: Ontario.....	Soybean-processing.
Do.	Do.	Portland.....	Petroleum refinery.
Phillipsburg.....	Soybean-processing.	Swisshome.....	Pipe line.
Louisiana: Meraux.....	Oil-compounding.	Pennsylvania: A vondale.....	Feed.
Maryland: Baltimore.....	Petroleum refinery.	Bloomburg.....	Seed-cleaning.
Michigan: Rock.....	Pipe line.	Manheim.....	Fertilizer.
Minnesota:	Petroleum refinery.	Warren.....	Sawmill.
Minneapolis.....	Feed.	South Dakota: Hill City.....	Soybean-processing.
South St. Paul.....	Fertilizer.	Texas: Amarillo.....	Cannery.
Virginia.....	Creamery.	Edrey.....	Seed-cleaning.
Missouri:	Oil-compounding.	Virginia: Richmond.....	Feed.
North Kansas City.....	Printing.	Roanoke.....	Oil-compounding.
Milan.....	Oil-compounding.	Norfolk.....	Sawmill.
Montana: Laurel.....	Paint.	Washington: Davenport.....	Feed.
Nebraska:	Grease.	Issaquah.....	Fertilizer.
Omaha.....	Printing.	Seattle.....	Printing.
Scottsbluff.....	Oil-compounding.	Wisconsin: Burkhardt.....	Feed.
New Jersey:	Fly-spray.	Menomonie.....	Soybean-processing.
Bridgeton.....	Cannery.	Milwaukee.....	Oil-compounding.
Mt. Holly.....	Petroleum refinery.	Superior.....	Feed.
New York:	Feed-mixing.	Waukesha.....	Coffee-roasting.
Albany.....	Seed-cleaning.	Canada	Bakery.
Batavia.....	Petroleum refinery.	British Columbia: Sand Bay (Vancouver Island). Shingle mill.	Printing.
Buffalo.....	Cannery.		Milking-machinery.
	Dehydration.		
	Soft-drink bottling.		
	Fertilizer.		
	Feed.		
	Do.		
	Fertilizer.		
	Feed.		

Labor Organizations

Convention of United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers, 1944¹

THE fourth convention of the United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union (A. F. of L.) in New York City, May 1 to 6, 1944, was a jubilee convention, celebrating the merger, 10 years ago, of two of the oldest unions in the American labor movement.² The leading questions which occupied the attention of the 156 delegates, from the union's 100 locals in the United States and Canada, related to (1) problems of the hat and cap trades, and (2) the union's attitude toward matters of public policy during the war and in the post-war period.

Problems of the Trade

The slow but persistently declining demand for hats and caps was the core of the industry's pre-war problems. With the war came new problems and difficulties. Although Government contracts for military caps produced a revival of the cap trade, loss of workers to higher-paid war industries and to the armed services created a shortage of manpower, and curtailment of foreign sources of supply resulted in shortages of raw materials.

Mercurial poisoning.—Part of the general executive board's report dealt with the union's fight against the major occupational disease of the industry—mercurial poisoning—which has been taking a toll of the health and lives of the workers. Mercury, which is used in the felting process of the fur-felt hat industry, has long been recognized in medical journals as the hatters' deadliest foe. For years the union has been campaigning for appropriate legislation banning the use of mercury in hat manufacture, and its efforts are at last bearing fruit. Prohibiting legislation has already been enacted in two of the five States where the problem was most acute—Connecticut (1941) and New Jersey (1942). In New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania the prospects for achieving similar results also seem bright, according to the general executive board's report.

Industrial stabilization.—The harmony which prevails in the internal affairs of the union also characterizes its relations with employers. An important and significant feature of its industrial-relations machinery is the New York Millinery Stabilization Commission,

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service, by Boris Stern and John L. Afros.

² The two unions that fused, in January 1934, were the United Hatters of North America and the Cloth Hat, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union. The United Hatters of North America was itself the result of an amalgamation, in 1896, of the Hat Makers' National Association of the United States and the International Trades Association of Fur Felt Finishers of America. The Cloth Hat, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union was organized in 1901, under the name of United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America. Further details are available in *The Headwear Worker, A Century of Trade Unionism*, published by the union in April 1944.

which was voluntarily constituted in 1936 by the union and employers. It is composed of three members, none of whom is identified with the industry or with labor. They are assisted by an advisory board consisting of an equal number of employer and union representatives. The Commission's functions are (1) to eliminate some of the more flagrant evils from which the industry has been suffering, (2) to enforce fair trade practices, and (3) to promote the sale of women's hats.

Referring to the Commission, President Zaritsky declared that it represents "a blueprint of cooperation within the industry, cooperation between labor and management. We have set the pace for other industries to follow."

We said to ourselves years back that while there may be divergent interests, or, rather, while labor may have one interest and management another, yet they have everything in common in so far as the fortunes of this industry are concerned. There cannot be well-paid labor without well-paid industry; that the fortunes of the workers are inseparably tied up with the fortunes of industry; that success of labor must go hand in hand and does go hand in hand with the prosperity of industry, because we have recognized that industry is the source of income for both, for management and for labor, and thus we have reached a point of understanding within our industry that self-government is the important factor. And so we have established a voluntary governing organization, a voluntary police force, as it were, our own, in which both management and labor join and participate.

Arbitration is the settled policy of the United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union. President Zaritsky gave emphasis to this policy when he stated: "We have incorporated in agreements with management in all of our industry the national policy of our International Union, and that is the settlement of grievances and disagreements by arbitration. That is the cornerstone of the policy of our industrial relationship in our industry."

The current agreement in the New York millinery industry provides that the impartial chairman shall have the power to examine the books of manufacturers periodically, to insure the observance of the provisions of the contract. Information thus secured may upon request be made available to the union.

Resolutions relating to the trade.—In 1941, the general executive board of the International joined with the manufacturers and retailers in the millinery industry in New York City in a hat-promotion campaign. In 1943, it contributed \$10,000 toward the work of Millinery Promotion, Inc., two of the purposes of which were to combat hatlessness and "to create a greater interest in millinery among younger girls." The convention approved the action of the board and adopted resolutions (1) urging its own members "whose very existence depends upon the wearing of hats" not to injure their industry by appearing on the streets without them, and (2) recommending a campaign to popularize hats and caps among the general public "so that when the war is over, and normal conditions again prevail, our workers will be able to work steadily and enjoy prosperous conditions."

In other resolutions relating to the industry, the delegates instructed the general executive board (1) to investigate differences in labor standards in the various centers of production and establish proper differentials where necessary, (2) to work out plans for the negotiation of a national agreement for the cap industry in order to unify and equalize labor standards in all cap markets, and (3) to initiate a nation-wide campaign for the union label in the hat, cap and millinery trades.

Membership of Union

In spite of a gain of about 2,000 members in the cap trade, the membership of the union declined by about 4,000 between 1941 and 1943. At the same time, according to the report of the general executive board, about 2,500 members entered the armed forces and several thousand workers went to the war industries.

Average Paid-Up Membership of United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union, 1914-43¹

Year	Total membership	Men	Women	Year	Total membership	Men	Women
1914	11,700	(?)	(?)	1929	14,400	(?)	(?)
1915	11,600	(?)	(?)	1930	13,300	(?)	(?)
1916	16,200	(?)	(?)	1931	(?)	(?)	(?)
1917	16,200	(?)	(?)	1932	11,800	(?)	(?)
1918	17,900	(?)	(?)	1933	(?)	(?)	(?)
1919	22,200	(?)	(?)	1934	19,800	9,900	9,900
1920	19,500	(?)	(?)	1935	21,000	10,000	11,000
1921	16,100	(?)	(?)	1936	22,600	10,400	10,200
1922	14,700	(?)	(?)	1937	25,200	12,400	12,800
1923	14,800	(?)	(?)	1938	24,200	12,500	11,700
1924	16,500	(?)	(?)	1939	27,700	13,500	14,200
1925	17,900	(?)	(?)	1940	28,400	14,700	13,700
1926	19,200	(?)	(?)	1941	31,700	16,200	15,500
1927	18,900	(?)	(?)	1942	29,200	14,100	15,100
1928	15,600	(?)	(?)	1943	\$ 27,600	13,000	14,600

¹ Figures compiled by Dr. Alfred Brasenthal, research director of the union.

According to the general executive board report, these figures do not accurately indicate the union's membership, because many members are just seasonal workers, who hold withdrawal cards which release them from the payment of dues during the period they are not at work in the trade. The recent seasonal peak membership is estimated at about 40,000.

² No data.

³ Of this number, 8,400 (about 30 percent) are in the men's hat trade, 5,600 (about 20 percent) in the cap trade, and 13,600 (about 50 percent) in the millinery trade.

Principal Resolutions

A. F. of L.-C. I. O. unity.—Expressing apprehension that attacks on labor's gains may be revived after the war, the convention called on the A. F. of L. and the C. I. O. to renew their negotiations for a unified labor movement, so that the "great moral and political force of 13,000,000 organized workers" may not be dissipated.

National War Labor Board.—Emphasizing that the paramount need of the Nation is uninterrupted production, and declaring that the no-strike pledge (which the convention reaffirmed) represents labor's surrender of its most cherished right and basic weapon in its struggle for a better life, the convention expressed its opposition to any attempts to weaken the National War Labor Board. Though labor has frequently felt aggrieved and disappointed by the Board's decisions, the resolution "solemnly warned" those who seek the destruction of the National War Labor Board that they are taking the first step away from that industrial peace "with which our Nation has been blessed."

Social security.—Unqualified endorsement was given to the pending Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill which seeks to amend and extend the benefits of the Social Security Act. The resolution stressed, however, the advisability of maintaining and extending, wherever possible, security benefits within industry and counseled its members "not to

rely altogether on legislation to give the workers the security to which they are entitled."

Political action.—The resolution on political action endorsed the position of the general executive board that "the necessity of intensive political activity has become more urgent in recent years. To a larger extent than ever was the case in the past, the fate of measures affecting labor is determined by governmental administrative agencies. Unless these administrative agencies are manned by people who understand labor's struggles and are sympathetic with its aims, interpretations are rendered which can make such welfare laws a liability instead of an asset to labor."

Economic questions.—In other resolutions, the delegates went on record as follows:

1. Endorsement was given to a national health insurance plan for Canada, which a Dominion Government Commission is now studying.

2. President Roosevelt and the National War Labor Board were called upon to discard the "Little Steel" formula as unfair, inequitable, and ineffective, and to substitute a measure that will truly distribute the burden and the hardships of war among all classes of the population.

3. The Smith-Connally Act was condemned as unnecessary, dangerous, and provocative.

4. Enactment of national service legislation was opposed and the international officers were instructed to work for the defeat of the pending bills.

5. In connection with the Price Control Act, Congress was urged (a) to extend it for 2 years beyond the termination of the war, (b) to make available to the OPA sufficient funds to enable it to tighten its control over prices, rent, and rationing regulations, (c) to enact legislation which would allow a substantial expansion of the food-subsidy program, with the object of rolling back living costs. The OPA was asked to provide for labor representation on rationing boards.

6. Pointing to the example of mutual tolerance and understanding which the union's membership, representing different races, beliefs, and origins, has demonstrated, and asserting that anti-Semitism and other forms of racial discrimination are "the first steps to tyranny," the delegates condemned and resolved to combat all forms of discrimination against Jews, Negroes, Mexicans, and other minority groups.

7. Noting an alarming increase in child labor, the convention called upon all agencies charged with the responsibility of enforcing these laws to insist upon their observance, "so that the most precious of our human resources may be conserved notwithstanding the existence of a state of war."

The convention also (a) approved the "marvelous work" of the International Labor Office in the interest of labor and its recommendations to the Philadelphia conference, (b) opposed the poll-tax laws in some of the southern States, (c) opposed the Equal Rights Bill for women, pending in Congress, on the ground that it would wipe out a great deal of the protective legislation, (d) endorsed the consumers' cooperative movement and instructed the general executive board to help in the promotion of cooperatives in every city and State where the union's members live, "to the end that the workers' earnings may be protected, so that they, as consumers, may obtain a

share in the ownership and control of America's productive facilities," (e) approved the Harvard University Trade-Union Fellowships, (f) urged the adoption of the Congressional resolution which calls for the abrogation of the British White Paper on Palestine and the establishment of a Jewish commonwealth in that country, and (g) endorsed the work of the American Jewish Trade Committee for Palestine.

Post-War Plans

That the United Hatters, Cap and Millinery Workers International Union is mindful of the urgent need to plan for post-war readjustment is evident from the decisions of its general executive board and from the action of the convention. The union's policy towards servicemen guarantees its members all rights and benefits while in the armed forces, without payment of dues or assessments, and, by agreements with employers, assures returning servicemen reinstatement in their former positions without loss of seniority.

Expressing concern for the millions returning at the end of the war, the delegates urged the Government to provide (1) adequate mustering-out pay for discharged men and women, (2) a rehabilitation program for disabled veterans, to be administered jointly by labor unions, business, and civic organizations, and (3) adequate opportunities for those young men and women who left fields of study, to resume their education.

In other resolutions dealing with post-war problems, the convention (1) approved the Baruch-Hancock plan for the reconversion of industry and requested labor representation "on the many post-war committees now or hereinafter to be established," (2) urged labor representation at the peace conference so that it may take part in forming the policies that will "affect all nations and particularly the labor forces the world over," and (3) endorsed the recommendations of the A. F. of L.'s Post-War Planning Committee and pledged cooperation in all measures which organized labor might take to further the goals proclaimed in these recommendations.

Constitution and Bylaws

A new provision (Art. X), permitting the inauguration and operation of a contributory retirement fund for the officers, executives, and employees of the International, was added to the union's constitution.

In recommending the adoption of a new section (Art. IX, Sec. 1) making the retirement of officers compulsory at the age of 65, the law committee stated that the reason for the proposal was the desire "to make room for the younger folks to become officers and executives of the International."

The 1939 constitution carried a provision (Art. IX, Sec. 9) that "foremen and foreladies shall not be eligible to serve as officers." Because the union now has a local composed exclusively of foremen, foreladies, and millinery designers, which under the existing provision could have no officers, the section was amended by adding "except in such local unions as are composed of foremen and foreladies."

Other constitutional changes adopted (1) reduce the number of vice presidents from 24 to 21, (2) make it mandatory upon the general executive board to audit all local books periodically (formerly union

books were audited only when it was feared that they were not in order), (3) require all locals to hold elections of officers at least every 2 years, and (4) permit delegates at conventions to vote on the basis of their locals' membership, with each delegate casting 1 vote for each 100 members.

Officers and Next Convention

The convention reelected the three International officers for the ensuing term—President Max Zaritsky, who served as assistant general secretary of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America from 1911 to 1919, as president of the Cap and Millinery Workers' International from 1919 to 1936, and as president of the consolidated union since 1936; Secretary-treasurer Michael F. Green, who has served in that capacity since 1936; and Label Secretary Martin Lawlor, who has held that office since 1934 and was previously treasurer of the United Hatters.

Rose Schneiderman, president of the Women's Trade Union League, and Louis Fine, of the Canadian Conciliation Service, were chosen honorary vice presidents. The members of the general executive board were also reelected.

Other officers who will continue for the next 2 years are Marx Lewis, executive vice president; Charles H. Green, executive secretary; and Jacob Rich, editor of *The Hat Worker*, the union's monthly publication.

The next convention is scheduled for 1946, in a city to be designated by the general executive board.



Convention of Ladies' Garment Workers, 1944¹

THE twenty-fifth convention of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union² met in Boston, May 29 to June 8, 1944. It was attended by 762 delegates from 363 locals in the United States and Canada, representing a membership of 305,000, composed of about 40 nationalities.

Among those who addressed the convention were the following: Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins; Attorney General Francis Biddle; William Green, President of the American Federation of Labor; Walter Nash, Deputy Prime Minister of New Zealand; Jan Stanczyk, Minister of Labor in the Polish Cabinet-in-Exile; Adolph

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service, by Boris Stern and John L. Afros.

² From 1870 onward, numerous attempts were made to organize the women's garment trades, but it was not until 1900 that an enduring industrial union—the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union—including all the crafts of the industry, was formed. In the same year, the new organization was granted a charter by the American Federation of Labor. In 1936, the I. L. G. W. U., along with the other unions constituting the Committee for Industrial Organization, was suspended from the American Federation of Labor by its executive council. In 1938, however, the I. L. G. W. U. refused to send delegates to the constitutional convention at which the Congress of Industrial Organizations was formed. It reaffiliated with the A. F. of L. in 1940.

The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union claims jurisdiction over the manufacture of coats, suits, dresses, "mannish" suits, skirts, waists, wrappers, theatrical costumes, neckwear, rainwear, knitwear, sportswear, snowsuits and leggings, bathrobes, underwear, corsets and brassieres, negligees, lingerie, infants' and children's wear, belts, artificial flowers, handkerchiefs, curtains, embroidery, crochet bedspreads, WAC uniforms, parachutes, and mosquito netting.

A. Berle, Jr., Assistant Secretary of State; Leverett Saltonstall, Governor of Massachusetts; Maurice J. Tobin, Mayor of Boston; Walter Schevenels, secretary of the International Federation of Trade Unions; and Matthew Woll, vice president of the American Federation of Labor. Messages of greeting were received from President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Herbert Morrison, British Minister of Home Security.

President Roosevelt lauded the union's accomplishments and its record of cooperation with management. In his letter to President Dubinsky he said in part:

Your organization has been a great stabilizing and constructive force in the ladies' garment industry. It has pointed the way to effective cooperation between labor and management and has successfully improved the conditions of labor in this trade. It has been a pioneer in its enlightened policy of making public each year an itemized account of its income and disbursements. You have every reason to be proud of the accomplishments under your leadership.

The union also received singular tribute from the A. F. of L. president, William Green, who said in part:

It is highly fitting and proper that the twenty-fifth convention of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union should meet here in Boston, because while this city was the cradle of American liberty, your organization can boast of being the school of American democracy for many thousands of our countrymen.

Yours is the one organization in the American Federation of Labor that, in my opinion, has fully and completely translated into action the aims, purposes, and policies of the American Federation of Labor. This is particularly true regarding that very vital, fundamental principle that was enunciated by my distinguished predecessor, the late Samuel Gompers, many, many years ago, that in our beloved country all men are free and equal, that there shall be no discrimination against any man or woman because of creed, color, or nationality.

Aid to The War Effort

The I. L. G. W. U. has made an enviable record of contributions to various causes connected with the war. According to the secretary-treasurer's report, the International office bought over \$4,000,000 worth of war bonds (including \$250,000 in Canadian victory bonds), and the local unions \$7,000,000. This is in addition to the purchase of over \$70,000,000 worth of bonds by individual members throughout the country in the first four war-loan drives. To increase war bond sales among I. L. G. W. U. members, the New York Dress Joint Board sponsored a campaign netting over \$8,000,000 for the construction of four Liberty Ships, which were named for Benjamin Schlesinger and Morris Sigman, former presidents of the union, and Morris Hillquit and Meyer London, labor attorneys who played an important role in the history of the union.

Other contributions from the union treasuries and the membership to the Red Cross, the USO, and the American, British, Russian, and Chinese war relief funds amounted to about \$3,200,000. Over 12,000 union members are serving in the armed forces, and more than 10,000 members have donated blood to the Red Cross. The convention passed a unanimous resolution asking the members to donate a day's pay, as they had done in the past few years, for the 1945 War Relief Fund.

Relations With Employers

Unbroken industrial peace, according to the general executive board, has marked the 4 years since the last convention, held in 1940.³ Though not in a war industry, the ladies' garment workers have adhered strictly to labor's no-strike pledge given in December 1941. "This record of industrial peace," the general executive board report declared, "has not been all a one-way affair; the leaders of our industry, with but few exceptions, have cooperated with the union in keeping labor-employer relations on a balanced keel."

The harmonious relationships between labor and management were attested by the presence of representatives of the leading employer organizations in the industry as guests of the convention and the statements of Alexander Printz, chairman of the National Coat and Suit Recovery Board and head of the Printz-Biederman Co., a cloak and suit manufacturing company of Cleveland. Mr. Printz said in part:

Coat and suit workers and employers have reached the stage of industrial maturity where it is taken for granted that joint effort is required to assure the growth of the industry. This effort, in turn, requires organization, organization of workers, organization of employers, and joint organization. * * *

It is not merely important for workers alone that their organization continue to be effective. The country at large benefits from the liberalizing influence which characterizes labor unions.

The record of the I. L. G. W. U. encourages us to believe that it will continue to be sensitive to the larger responsibilities it has acquired by virtue of becoming one of the great labor organizations of the country.

Union Membership and Finances

According to a membership census, the union had, as of January 1, 1944, a paid-up membership of about 305,000 in 363 locals with 22 joint boards, in 246 cities in the United States and Canada, as compared with 240,000 members in 277 locals in 178 communities in 1940. The report of the general executive board pointed out that of the 65,000 increase, 50,000 members were recruited in the nonwar year of 1941 as a result of organizing campaigns, and only 15,000 had joined the union in the period since the attack on Pearl Harbor. During the 4 years since the last convention, the report indicated, about 170,000 members dropped out and about 235,000 were initiated or reinitiated. Of the present total membership, more than three-fourths are women and about 10,000 are Negroes.

The I. L. G. W. U. is noteworthy for the complete accounting on membership, assets, expenditures, and other statistical data given to the membership by the general office of the International. The report presented to the 1944 convention by President Dubinsky (who also holds the position of secretary-treasurer) gave detailed figures on receipts from per capita dues, initiation fees, regular and special assessments, income from interest on bonds, savings accounts, and profits on sale of bonds, cost of administering the various departments, including weekly pay rolls for administrative, organizing, and clerical staffs, strike benefits and strike expenses, legal fees, donations to institutions and labor causes, including names of recipients, and deficits of the union's institutions.

³ The constitution of the union provides for the holding of an International convention every 2 years. Because of the war, the convention that was to have been held in 1942 was postponed by referendum of the membership.

Membership of International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, 1903-43¹

Year	Membership as shown by—		Year	Membership as shown by—	
	Stamps purchased (52-week basis)	Membership census		Stamps purchased (52-week basis)	Membership census
1903	3,205	3,846	1924	45,617	54,740
1904	1,502	1,802	1925	40,629	48,764
1905	1,346	1,605	1926	40,376	45,451
1906	1,624	1,949	1927	26,917	32,300
1907	2,094	2,513	1928	23,680	28,416
1908	1,341	1,609	1929	26,393	31,672
1909	6,526	7,830	1930	32,623	39,148
1910	48,522	58,226	1931	28,004	34,793
1911	58,287	69,945	1932	19,897	23,876
1912	61,982	74,378	1933	33,685	40,422
1913	70,531	84,637	1934	139,754	198,141
1914	64,633	77,559	1935	168,039	216,801
1915	62,008	74,518	1936	179,267	222,369
1916	60,589	72,707	1937	187,497	242,290
1917	71,126	85,351	1938	200,959	253,646
1918	65,488	78,585	1939	201,472	234,825
1919	107,750	129,311	1940	212,506	239,349
1920	89,744	107,693	1941	240,316	247,937
1921	73,796	88,555	1942	256,455	298,756
1922	61,431	73,717	1943	249,726	300,550
1923	63,871	76,645			

¹ Figures taken from the general secretary-treasurer's financial and statistical report to the convention (p. 47). No data are available for years prior to 1903.

Comparative figures for general and reserve funds, membership and financial standing of each local union and joint board, and a schedule of annual cash balances from 1903 to 1944 were also given. The report revealed that the international union and its affiliates have combined assets amounting to more than 16 million dollars, an increase of nearly 9½ million dollars over 1940.

Problems of the Union and the Trade

Though predominantly a civilian-goods industry, women's garment making has not been unaffected by the war. On the whole, the volume of war work placed in this industry has been negligible—only about 40,000 members have been employed on direct war work. This has been due mainly to the small size of the women's garment plants and to the high-wage standards prevailing in the industry, making it difficult for them to compete against the larger producers in the men's clothing industry. Indirectly, however, the industry has been affected by sharp rises in the price of garments because of inordinate buying, the restriction of materials, the disappearance of cheaper textiles, and the demand for the simplest and most useful garments for millions of women in war production factories. Employment in the garment trades has declined because of the attraction of higher wages, steady work, and the satisfaction of direct participation in the war effort offered by war industries.

Delegates from cloak makers' locals felt that the manufacture, in recent years, of "mannish style" ladies' coats and suits in men's clothing shops, under the jurisdiction of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America (C. I. O.), constitutes a threat to their jurisdic-

tion. The convention authorized the general executive board to negotiate with the clothing manufacturers and confer with the A. C. W. A. in order to iron out the difficulties.

In an effort to eradicate the lingering remnants of industrial homework which "results in ruthless exploitation of the home workers, undermines the labor standards of factory employees, and endangers the stability of legitimate employers," the convention instructed its general executive board to work for State and Federal legislation to eliminate some work. Another resolution instructed the general executive board to ask the American Federation of Labor to grant I. L. G. W. U. affiliates complete jurisdiction over the various crafts involved in the production of theatrical costumes.⁴

Other resolutions requested the incoming board to study and take such action as it may see fit with reference to (1) a guaranteed annual wage in the various branches of the industry, (2) a 35-hour week in the rainwear and cotton-garment trades, and (3) a uniform date of commencement and termination for collective agreements in all the cloak markets.

Welfare Activities and Institutions

The I. L. G. W. U. was a pioneer in obtaining for its members health benefits, medical care, vacations, education, and pensions.

Health, vacations, pensions.—According to a report submitted by Charles S. Zimmerman, chairman of the convention committee on benefits and institutions, many of the union's contracts provide for medical care, sick benefits, vacations with pay, and old-age pensions financed by employers' contributions. The report revealed that (1) 225,000 garment workers are entitled to paid vacations, (2) 110,000 members are working for employers who have agreed to contribute to health funds providing medical care and sick benefits, and (3) the social-security pensions of 40,000 cloak makers are supplemented from an old-age retirement fund to which employers are making regular contributions.

* * * these achievements * * * [are] but the first steps on the long road toward winning from the employers and from our Government an adequate and comprehensive welfare and security plan for our members and for labor in general. The efforts of our International to carry into effect the principle of employer responsibility for the workers' welfare were facilitated by the abnormal conditions of recent years. As a result of War Labor Board restrictions, the workers were unable to obtain in the form of wage increases their rightful share in the unprecedented prosperity of the garment industry. Accordingly, the emphasis of our union was shifted to gains in welfare and security. What we have won in these fields will be of lasting value to all members of our International and will serve as an example to unions in other fields. Though these gains were made under unusual circumstances, they will be maintained after the war ends.

Although favoring continued pressure for the liberalization of pension provisions of the Social Security Act, the delegates at the same time resolved to pursue the union's efforts to provide directly for the security of its ageing members. Further, all officers involved in the negotiation of agreements were instructed to exert every effort to include health-fund provisions in all future contracts with employers and, where such funds have already been established, to

⁴ In 1943, the A. F. of L. gave complete control to the I. L. G. W. U. over its federal locals composed exclusively of theatrical-costume workers. By the 1944 resolution, the union sought to extend its jurisdiction over the remaining theatrical-costume workers in other federal locals.

seek to increase the employers' contribution rate so that the protection accorded the members against illness may be extended.

The delegates endorsed the "settled policy" of the International to provide its members "wherever possible" with paid vacations and medical aid under provisions of contracts covering their trades, and approved the board's proposal to create a special department in the general office to act as a clearing house for the coordination and administration of the various funds involved.

The convention also authorized the general executive board to formulate and put into operation as soon as practicable a program to provide security against illness, accident, and old age for all officers of the International union.

Union Health Center.—Established in 1913, the union's New York medical center represents one of the oldest and largest industrial health programs conducted wholly by a labor union for its members. The center administers the sickness-insurance plans which operate in 17 New York locals, financed from a tax levied on the gross pay rolls of manufacturers. According to its 1943 annual report, the Center has a staff of 102 physicians and 50 nurses, technicians, druggists, and opticians. Because the fees paid by the members are not adequate to defray the expense of the institution's many services, its deficit for the past 4 years, amounting to about \$90,000, has been covered by the general office treasury. In addition to direct medical care and advice to individual members, the Center has carried on an extensive program of health education, conducting lectures at union meetings and, frequently, in the factories. Similar health centers have recently been established in Philadelphia, Fall River, Mass., and Toronto, Canada.⁵

Unity House.—For over 25 years, the union has operated a summer vacation resort in the Pocono Hills of Pennsylvania, where its members are offered practically at cost accommodations, food, entertainment, and recreation. In the 1943 season, Unity House provided about 64,600 guest-days of vacations for the members.

Death benefit fund.—In 1937, the union inaugurated a death-benefit fund providing \$150 worth of life insurance for an individual assessment of \$1 a year. During the first 5 years, it collected \$1,417,000, and paid out about \$400,000 to beneficiaries. By action of the general executive board, approved by the convention, insurance rights of members in the armed services will be preserved by the payment of their assessments by their locals.

Educational work.—The I. L. G. W. U. education program has been in existence since 1917. In the 1943-44 school year, the educational department reported 11,900 enrolled students in 489 classes and activities, while in the preceding school year 17,200 students were registered in 705 classes and activities.

Among the more significant activities sponsored by the workers' education department are (1) orientation courses for new members, in which they are taught the rights and responsibilities of union membership, and (2) "officers' qualification courses" primarily for prospective officers and members of executive boards. Since 1939, 359 members have completed these courses and earned certificates

⁵ For extended account of this center and its services, as well as of the entire health program of the union, see Monthly Labor Review, October 1939 (pp. 811-829).

qualifying them as candidates for office in the International or any of its locals.

The department also conducts summer schools in cooperation with a number of leading universities, particularly the University of Wisconsin. Other activities of this department include forums, dramatics, athletics, art classes, choruses, and a variety of war-service activities.

In the 4-year period ending March 31, 1944, the union and its affiliates spent more than \$900,000, or approximately \$227,000 per year, on workers' education.

Resolutions Relating to The Labor Movement

Racketeers and racketeering in the labor movement were decisively condemned, and the I. L. G. W. U. delegates to the next convention of the American Federation of Labor were instructed to sponsor measures to eradicate this evil. Earlier in the convention President Dubinsky sharply denounced racketeering in unions and called upon the A. F. of L. to bar from membership and leadership all persons who utilize the labor movement for their selfish purposes.

The convention recommended that the A. F. of L. establish a public relations department to utilize all avenues of contact with the public in order to interpret the true social aims of organized labor, to present a picture of responsible trade-unionism as an element in the American way of life, and to establish relations of good will and cooperation with those sections of the public to which labor is bound by a community of interest.

Other resolutions (1) condemned all manifestations of race prejudice or discrimination in the labor movement and instructed the union's delegates to the next A. F. of L. convention to take energetic action to eliminate all such practices from its ranks as un-American and "contrary to the true principles of labor"; (2) endorsed the recommendations made by the Philadelphia conference of the International Labor Office and pledged its aid in carrying out that program; (3) instructed the general executive board to provide generous financial and moral support to the trade-unionists in the underground movements in enemy and occupied countries; (4) demanded the removal of all restrictions upon immigration to Palestine and urged "free ports everywhere" to aid the millions of wandering and homeless victims of Nazi occupation and persecution; (5) commended the work of the Italian-American Labor Council and petitioned the President's War Relief Control Board to permit the Council's subsidiary—the American Committee for Italian Relief—to launch a campaign to collect funds and clothing for the Italian people in the liberated areas.

Post-War Plans

Second only to winning the war, the convention was most concerned about the problems connected with the transition to peace. A high point in the consideration of post-war plans and prospects was the address by Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins, in which she presented an 18-point program "to facilitate the orderly return of the industrial population to normal peacetime ways."

In harmony with the Secretary's program and following closely the post-war pattern sketched by the general executive board in the section of its report dealing with "After the Victory," the convention adopted a series of proposals for the return to a peaceful domestic economy and for the organization of international peace.

Domestic policy.—As a preamble to the union's program on domestic readjustment, the report laid down the following general principles:

What is important is to bear in mind that the paramount problem of the employment of millions of people in a period of transition to peacetime industry is not, and cannot be, the work of any one single group in our national economy. It is not a job that industry alone can perform; it is not a job that labor alone would undertake to handle; nor is it an enterprise which government can tackle single-handedly. * * * Under governmental supervision, industry, finance, labor, agriculture, and the consumer public can be brought together to function in a flexible machinery of over-all economic planning and control. The Federal Government may also contribute directly to the same end through its powers of taxation and public spending.

The delegates resolved in favor of—

1. A permanent national economic council representing various economic and social groups (a) to study the Nation's economic resources and potentialities, (b) to devise plans for their utilization, and (c) to propose appropriate legislation to Congress.
2. A permanent Federal works agency to develop projects to supplement the activities of private enterprise when needed.
3. A representative Federal agency to cooperate with the proper authorities in the demobilization of the armed forces in order to effect an orderly transition to civilian life.
4. Government control of production, prices, and supply during the period of transition and reconversion.
5. A Federal agency to supervise the processes of reconversion and the disposal of Government-owned plants and stock piles after the war.

Endorsement was also given to the "G. I. Bill of Rights," and additional measures were urged to provide hospitalization, education, vocational training, and financial assistance for returning servicemen.

Industry problems.—The convention approved the general executive board's recommendation that for a period of a year all women's garment workers with an honorable discharge from the armed services should be admitted to I. L. G. W. U. membership without initiation fees. The board also received instruction (a) to consider the establishment of a post-war reserve fund based upon immediate wage increases which are to be held in trust by the union and paid out to members after the war when such payment will not have an inflationary effect, (b) to devise plans for reestablishing control over garment plants which were under the jurisdiction of the I. L. G. W. U. before they turned to the production of war articles, in order to prevent substandard working conditions and wages after the war, and (c) to constitute a stabilization planning board, composed of the Nation's "leading liberal economists," and to commission it to study ways and means of anticipating and avoiding the disruptions that may result in the garment industry from the reconversions of the Nation's war economy. Representatives from each of the trades, together with representatives from manufacturers' groups, would serve as advisers to this board.

International relations.—On foreign policy, the union's position may be summarized as follows:

1. The I. L. G. W. U. is unreservedly opposed to unilateral action by any power, however great, in its relations with other nations.

2. The union favors the establishment of a permanent international organization to secure and maintain peace. Such an organization, however, cannot attain its full effectiveness unless labor is fully and adequately represented on all of its councils by representatives chosen by organized labor itself.

3. It favors adequate representation at the coming peace conference for the labor movements of all countries.

4. It urges the United States Government to take immediate steps to form a United Nations Council as a first step in the formation of an international organization.

5. America's foreign policy should be directed toward (a) support of the Four Freedoms and the Atlantic Charter, (b) removal of trade barriers and the encouragement of the exchange of goods among the nations as a means of advancing their economic stability and social well-being, and (c) assurances to small nations against aggression or domination by the bigger powers.

6. An Under-Secretariat of Labor should be created in the State Department, the functions of which would be to organize and supervise the work of labor attachés in all countries where the United States has diplomatic representation. The head of that office and the labor attachés "should be chosen upon recommendation of the bona fide American labor movement."

7. The free labor and liberal movements of the liberated and defeated countries should be effectively re-established and utilized by the United Nations as an important factor in the revival and restoration of democracy in Europe.

Constitutional Changes

The convention amended article 12, section 8, of the union's constitution, providing for annual reports, by requiring that financial statements shall also be furnished to the general executive board at its quarterly meetings.

Article 5, section 23, was modified to permit slate voting. This amendment enables any group of candidates for office in a local union who desire to appear on the ballot under a group name or designation to file a request for such designation with that local's executive committee. The recommendation was adopted, 13 delegates voting against it.

Other constitutional changes approved provide that (1) conventions of the International shall be held every 3 instead of every 2 years, and (2) election of local and joint board officers shall be held every 3 years, simultaneously with the election of convention delegates.

The delegates also gave unanimous approval to an increase in the president's salary from \$10,000 to \$12,500 per year.

Officers and Next Convention

David Dubinsky, president since 1932, was unanimously reelected for the ensuing term of 3 years. Luigi Antonini, who has been general

manager of the Italian Dressmakers, Local 89, since 1919, was also reelected unanimously as first vice president. By special resolution, repeating the action of three previous conventions, the constitutional provision requiring the election of a general secretary-treasurer was waived, and the duties of this office were again vested in President Dubinsky. The convention also elected 22 vice presidents, 12 from New York City and 10 from "out-of-town" areas, who, together with the other officers, constitute the general executive board.

The next convention is scheduled to be held in May 1947, in a city to be designated by the general executive board.



Convention of National Federation of Telephone Workers, 1944

THE National Federation of Telephone Workers, an independent federation of unions within the telephone industry, held its tenth national assembly during the week of June 12 to 17, 1944, in Denver, Colo. Following the Federation's usual custom, panel and regional meetings preceded these general sessions.

The entire week of the general assembly was devoted to consideration of the telephone workers' problems, and the Federation's delegates adopted a number of resolutions bearing upon telephone labor and its relations with other labor organizations. Of great importance in this respect was a series of resolutions in which the Federation gave renewed impetus to its drive to organize all telephone workers in unions affiliated with the N. F. T. W.

To simplify the work of organizing, the convention authorized establishment of a separate department to provide for direct affiliation of local units, in addition to the usual method (i. e., through an autonomous member organization). The executive board was directed to take the necessary steps to organize telephone workers within the jurisdiction of a nonaffiliate where such union had deteriorated "into an organization which is not serving the best interests of its membership or telephone workers in general." The assembly authorized the earmarking of sufficient funds to enable the executive board to "enlarge and pursue the organizing program without undue delay." Dues from member organizations were raised from 5 cents to 10 cents per capita per month.

The convention endorsed Franklin D. Roosevelt for reelection as President of the United States. It went on record as expressing "a full measure of praise for the genius, knowledge, dependability, and resourcefulness of our civilian and military leaders in the conduct of the war" and directed that "our Commander-in-Chief be notified of the Federation's appreciation and gratitude for a job well done and of the loyalty, encouragement, and support we give to him and to our country in this, the most critical period of its history."

The executive board was directed to make "strong representations to the National War Labor Board for the establishment of a tripartite body which shall hear and determine all telephone cases,"

and the "Little Steel" formula was condemned as having ceased "to represent a fair solution to the problem of the increase in the cost of living."

An entire day was devoted to workers' education and related subjects. Round-table discussions followed formal addresses on the menace of the nonmember, can unions make democracy a reality, the value of publicity, labor legislation in the United States, and wartime bargaining and techniques. The evening session consisted of an informal discussion of various educational problems, conducted by Ruth Wiencek, educational director of the Federation.

The officers and executive board elected for the coming year consist of J. A. Beirne (New York), president; J. J. Moran (Pittsburgh), vice president; and C. W. Werkau (Chicago), secretary-treasurer; F. V. Smith (Detroit) and A. C. Benscoter (Chicago), executive board members-at-large; George DuVal (Newark), eastern regional director; E. Weaver (Chicago), central regional director; Donald Buckley (Los Angeles), western regional director; and Frank Sexton (Fort Worth), southern regional director.

History and Scope of the Federation

The National Federation of Telephone Workers was formally organized in June 1939, at an assembly in New York City. From 13 affiliates having a membership of 40,000, the Federation has increased to 41 autonomous unions having a total paid-up membership of about 130,000, drawn from all branches of the industry—accounting, commercial, manufacturing and research, plant, and traffic. Approximately 60 percent of the members are women.

Affiliated unions range in size from the United Plant Telephone Workers of Delaware, with 150 members, to the union at the Kearney, N. J., plant of the Western Electric Manufacturing Co., with 20,000 members.

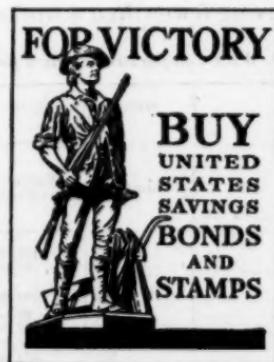
The unions in the Federation operate in all 48 States and the District of Columbia. They hold contracts covering an estimated 175,000 to 200,000 workers in the industry. These agreements are held in the name of the affiliated union and negotiations are carried on at the local level, assisted where necessary by the National Federation.

The telephone industry is operating on a 24-hour day, 7-day week basis. The agreements negotiated by N. F. T. W. unions are designed to meet the conditions within the industry, and place considerable emphasis upon the provision of extra compensation for evening and night work and for unusual conditions. Many provide for premium pay under certain specified conditions where employees are shifted from days to nights or evenings, or vice versa.

The greatest accomplishment of the Federation has been the wage increases negotiated. Prior to the emergence of the unions in the industry, wages, particularly among the operators, were very low. Starting rates for operators were in many cases as low as \$11 and \$12 a week, and the wage-progression program often required that the employee work 12 to 15 years or even longer to reach the maximum rate, which in some companies did not exceed \$20 or \$22 a week. These low wages were accompanied by close supervision and, in many

localities, speed-up methods. The Federation and its affiliated unions have done much to correct these conditions.

Although not affiliated with either the A. F. of L. or the C. I. O., the N. F. T. W. has pursued a policy of cooperating with these two organizations in the interests of labor in general. However, the Federation's unvarying principle, expressed in the slogan, "Telephone work for telephone people," has involved it in a number of jurisdictional disputes. In one of these disputes, the position taken by the National War Labor Board was that past experience in allocation of work should be the determining factor in deciding who should perform a specific job. Although not entirely satisfied with this ruling, the Federation has accepted it as a wartime condition imposed to prevent interference with effective prosecution of the war.



Industrial Disputes

Strikes in July 1944

STRIKE activity in July 1944 was a little less than in June, according to the Bureau's preliminary estimates. There were 470 strikes with 145,000 workers involved, as compared with 500 strikes and 155,000 workers involved in June, with approximately the same amount of idleness each month (680,000 man-days). Idleness during each month amounted to 0.09 percent of the available working time.

All figures in the table below exclude strikes lasting less than 1 day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 6 workers.

Strikes in July 1944, With Comparative Figures for Earlier Periods

Month	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
July 1944 ¹	470	145,000	680,000	.09
June 1944 ¹	500	155,000	680,000	.09
July 1943	369	121,298	605,458	.08
July 1942	388	99,676	416,741	.06
July 1941	439	142,969	1,325,758	.28
July 1940	244	63,126	585,651	.11
July 1939	251	175,542	1,168,382	.24

¹ Preliminary estimates.

Strikes Under the War Labor Disputes Act

On June 25, 1944, the War Labor Disputes Act had been in effect 1 year. During this time the National Labor Relations Board conducted 230 strike ballots under terms of the act. In 203 cases the workers voted to strike and in the remaining 27 cases they voted against striking. Only 64 strikes, involving 41,718 workers, actually occurred following strike ballots conducted by the NLRB. These strikes amounted to 1.4 percent of all strikes which occurred during the period, and the 41,718 workers involved constituted 2.4 percent of the workers involved in all strikes.

Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, June 1944

THE United States Conciliation Service, during June, disposed of 2,530 situations involving 1,322,778 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 284 were strikes and lockouts involving 114,099 workers; 1,438 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 578,837 workers. During the month 494 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 18 cases, other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 296 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, June 1944, by Type of Situation

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All types of situations.....	2,530	1,322,778
Labor disputes.....		
Strikes.....	1,722	692,936
Threatened strikes.....	278	112,305
Lockouts.....	187	70,793
Controversies.....	6	1,794
1,251	490,044	
Other situations.....	296	36,536
Arbitrations.....	117	21,724
Technical services.....	21	7,554
Investigations.....	37	1,976
Requests to conduct consent elections.....	6	599
Requests for verification of union membership.....	5	392
Requests for information.....	10	19
Consultations.....	45	103
Special services of Commissioners.....	52	4,161
Complaints.....	3	8
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	512	593,306
To National War Labor Board.....	494	589,352
To National Labor Relations Board.....	6	1,484
To other Federal agencies.....	10	2,392
To Wage Adjustment Board.....		
To non-governmental agencies.....	1	50
To State agencies.....	1	28

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades and transportation, and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by the employers and employees in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and Canada (table 3).

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, June 1944, by Industry

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	2,234	1,286,242	296	36,536	2,530	1,322,73
Agriculture	8	748			8	748
Building trades	73	19,584	8	146	81	19,72
Chemicals	72	19,304	18	607	90	19,91
Communications	16	12,835	4	60	20	12,886
Electrical equipment	54	21,101	8	121	62	21,222
Food	252	64,927	15	2,621	267	67,548
Furniture and finished lumber	51	9,291	9	1,037	60	10,328
Iron and steel	306	128,561	29	5,355	335	132,916
Leather	23	4,697	15	1,978	38	6,675
Lumber	106	17,632	4	16	110	17,648
Machinery	115	50,620	6	481	121	51,801
Maritime	16	847	2	1,201	18	2,048
Mining	15	4,830	1	4,560	16	9,380
Motion pictures	2	45			2	45
Nonferrous metals	98	44,183	14	2,068	112	46,222
Paper	35	6,053	2	4	37	6,057
Personal service	79	6,020	7	584	86	6,604
Petroleum	28	11,417	14	983	42	12,400
Printing	62	6,969	4	771	66	7,740
Professional	20	1,153			20	1,153
Rubber	34	16,757	8	603	42	17,390
Stone, clay and glass	104	22,252	2	80	106	22,332
Textile	93	56,725	43	1,357	136	58,862
Tobacco	4	2,100	19	79	23	2,179
Trade	170	13,207	8	167	178	13,374
Transportation	103	23,886	14	380	117	24,286
Transportation equipment	244	700,115	22	9,600	266	709,715
Utilities	21	7,254	6	37	27	7,391
Miscellaneous	30	13,126	14	1,640	44	14,766

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, June 1944, by State

State or country	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Total	2,234	1,286,242	296	36,536	2,530	1,322,73
Canada			1	1	1	1
Alabama	27	9,664	8	954	35	10,618
Alaska	11	114	1	10	12	128
Arizona	7	5,638			7	5,638
Arkansas	11	795			11	795
California	137	39,161	3	156	140	39,317
Colorado	24	4,717	2	6	26	4,723
Connecticut	30	27,005	3	4,252	33	31,257
Delaware	4	577	1	1	5	583
District of Columbia	2	780	3	338	5	1,118
Florida	19	252,459	4	91	23	253,450
Georgia	11	2,300	5	1,209	16	3,509
Hawaii						
Idaho	17	1,670	2	4,561	19	4,821
Illinois	191	43,264	12	202	203	43,466
Indiana	64	38,370	16	3,159	80	41,529
Iowa	48	7,303	4	14	52	7,357
Kansas	17	1,855			17	1,855
Kentucky	14	4,375	5	19	19	4,394
Louisiana	16	2,861	9	17	25	2,886
Maine	3	160	4	19	7	167
Maryland	38	62,598	4	194	42	63,782
Massachusetts	60	22,905	27	881	87	23,786
Michigan	218	171,150	9	948	227	172,098
Minnesota	124	6,539	1	20	125	6,559
Mississippi	2	646			2	646
Missouri	65	34,849	7	678	72	35,527
Montana	23	2,455	1	32	24	2,487

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, June 1944, by State—Continued*

State or country	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Nebraska	8	6,479	—	—	8	6,479
Nevada	2	197	—	—	2	197
New Hampshire	6	504	6	70	12	574
New Jersey	63	60,393	20	1,533	83	70,926
New Mexico	5	634	—	—	5	634
New York	148	77,347	22	3,271	170	80,618
North Carolina	27	2,782	7	477	34	3,259
Puerto Rico	19	3,021	—	—	19	3,021
North Dakota	1	3	2	2	3	5
Ohio	218	101,353	22	3,840	240	105,193
Oklahoma	15	4,352	2	329	17	4,681
Oregon	57	9,346	2	1,132	59	10,478
Pennsylvania	180	157,848	24	5,817	204	163,665
Rhode Island	5	1,710	3	28	8	1,738
South Carolina	5	1,005	6	45	11	1,050
South Dakota	1	7	—	—	1	7
Tennessee	31	19,571	8	207	39	19,778
Texas	30	22,942	9	612	39	23,554
Utah	6	271	1	1	7	272
Vermont	4	153	—	—	4	153
Virginia	23	5,491	19	652	42	6,143
Washington	62	13,028	4	132	66	13,160
West Virginia	31	14,332	2	101	33	14,433
Wisconsin	102	30,183	5	525	107	30,708
Wyoming	2	80	—	—	2	80



Activities of U. S. Conciliation Service, 1943–44

DURING the fiscal year ended June 30, 1944, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 24,797 situations involving 12,241,683 workers, as compared with 17,559 situations involving 10,974,611 workers for the fiscal year 1942–43. There were 25,094 assignments made to labor disputes, including arbitrations and technical services, during this year, as compared with 17,160 assignments made during the past year.

Of these 24,797 situations handled in 1943–44, 2,480 were strikes and lockouts involving 1,018,002 workers; 14,065 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 5,162,470 workers. During the fiscal year, 4,572 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board; jurisdiction was assumed by other agencies in 581 cases. The remaining 3,099 situations included investigations, technical services, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades, transportation and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. The classification of transportation equipment, which includes the manufacture of equipment for transportation by air, land, and water, had more workers (3,640,070) involved in disputes than any other group, and was followed in order by the iron and steel industries (1,555,635), machinery (814,252), and food (745,917).

The group of iron and steel industries with 3,369 cases surpassed the classification of food with 2,247. The next highest in number were trade (2,097), transportation equipment (2,043), transportation (1,473), textile (1,283), and machinery (1,226).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, July 1, 1943, to June 30, 1944, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number of cases	Workers involved
All types of situations	1 24,797	12,241,880
Labor disputes	16,545	6,180,673
Strikes	2,444	1,006,491
Threatened strikes	1,813	1,053,179
Lockouts	36	12,082
Controversies	12,252	4,108,281
Other situations	3,099	489,466
Arbitrations	1,185	229,677
Technical services	213	181,464
Investigations	476	41,877
Requests to conduct secret elections	20	5,000
Requests for verification of union membership	26	4,667
Requests for information	185	179
Consultations	476	1,781
Special services of Commissioners	401	31,628
Complaints	117	112
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations	5,153	8,601,718
To National War Labor Board	4,572	5,308,660
To National Labor Relations Board	365	118,000
To other Federal agencies	102	55,217
To Wage Adjustment Board	16	5,000
To non-governmental agencies	52	19,469
To State agencies	46	34,174

¹ During the fiscal year, 2,011 cases involving 681,784 workers, were adjusted subject to hearing-officer or arbitration procedure with the hearing officer or arbiter to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, July 1, 1943, to June 30, 1944, by Industry*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	21,698	11,782,191	3,060	459,402	24,797	12,241,880
Agriculture	70	254,867	7	20	77	254,867
Building trades	725	210,028	75	2,643	800	212,671
Chemicals	749	221,822	126	10,109	875	231,990
Communications	120	213,840	18	443	147	214,380
Electrical equipment	486	639,303	69	23,310	555	662,613
Food	2,060	725,629	187	20,288	2,247	746,907
Furniture and finished lumber	643	114,251	96	4,525	739	118,778
Iron and steel	2,972	1,505,161	397	55,474	3,369	1,555,655
Leather	364	115,606	198	19,658	562	135,264
Lumber	719	154,382	47	1,159	766	154,540
Machinery	1,090	784,020	136	30,223	1,226	814,239
Martitime	137	137,691	12	1,566	140	139,257
Mining	279	61,022	18	13,208	257	74,289
Motion pictures	31	5,926	2	5	33	5,928
Nonferrous metals	778	717,060	128	15,529	906	732,585
Paper	289	68,002	46	1,552	335	69,554
Personal service	1,001	130,516	93	6,075	1,094	136,591
Petroleum	287	102,482	99	9,738	386	112,225
Printing	475	50,867	42	1,950	617	52,818
Professional	115	27,076	19	648	134	28,228
Rubber	274	263,577	51	8,968	325	271,540
Stone, clay, and glass	787	263,789	90	3,825	877	267,616
Textile	989	634,881	294	22,469	1,283	657,350
Tobacco	85	83,200	32	6,770	117	89,979
Trade	1,978	192,846	119	16,721	3,097	208,662
Transportation	1,329	324,267	144	12,783	1,473	337,040
Transportation equipment	1,774	3,493,640	269	146,430	2,043	3,640,073
Utilities	246	77,521	31	584	277	78,785
Miscellaneous	837	188,301	254	27,750	1,061	205,062

In 38 States, as well as the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, Cuba, the Virgin Islands, and Puerto Rico, fewer than 600 situations were handled in the fiscal year 1943-1944. The greatest number of cases occurred in Illinois (2,651), Ohio (2,227), Pennsylvania (1,857), New York (1,845), Michigan (1,833), California (1,617), Missouri (1,262), and Indiana (1,039).

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, July 1, 1943, to June 30, 1944, by State

State or country	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	21,698	11,782,191	3,099	459,492	24,797	12,241,683
Alabama	243	107,094	66	12,288	309	119,382
Alaska	16	198	1	10	17	208
Arizona	113	60,009	8	901	121	61,000
Arkansas	114	17,316	6	715	120	18,031
California	1,484	958,177	133	11,633	1,617	969,810
Canada			1	1	1	1
Colorado	217	25,125	8	85	225	25,210
Connecticut	216	215,161	47	8,103	263	223,264
Cuba	1	390			1	390
Delaware	50	70,889	6	7,673	56	78,562
District of Columbia	97	37,166	61	7,041	158	44,207
Florida	176	328,559	31	8,094	207	336,653
Georgia	155	27,147	35	2,699	190	29,846
Hawaii	3	295	2	160	5	455
Iowa	109	17,706	9	12,706	118	30,412
Idaho	2,429	903,101	222	32,925	2,651	936,026
Indiana	900	337,732	130	25,396	1,039	363,128
Iowa	447	59,027	25	2,534	472	91,561
Kansas	178	90,186	19	25,527	197	115,713
Kentucky	246	55,208	27	5,357	273	60,565
Louisiana	181	94,618	70	1,674	251	98,292
Maine	47	62,489	20	360	67	62,549
Maryland	218	180,058	30	1,334	248	190,392
Massachusetts	703	415,570	275	34,248	978	449,818
Michigan	1,572	1,334,483	263	21,032	1,835	1,355,515
Minnesota	508	103,592	22	599	530	104,191
Mississippi	45	22,183	5	1,267	50	23,450
Missouri	1,147	266,564	115	19,614	1,262	286,178
Montana	118	30,493	4	468	122	30,961
Nebraska	136	33,139	10	1,762	146	34,901
Nevada	34	10,932	2	3	36	10,935
New Hampshire	65	16,770	28	1,343	98	18,113
New Jersey	697	457,919	116	28,374	813	486,293
New Mexico	41	12,624	9	370	50	12,994
New York	1,665	1,356,708	180	18,954	1,845	1,355,662
North Carolina	231	113,644	50	2,753	281	116,397
North Dakota	27	433	6	207	33	640
Ohio	1,901	867,384	326	38,664	2,227	906,048
Oklahoma	186	30,384	30	1,783	216	32,167
Oregon	508	99,796	31	3,162	539	102,958
Pennsylvania	1,644	1,583,632	213	45,049	1,857	1,626,681
Puerto Rico	193	320,801	21	3,723	214	324,524
Rhode Island	96	91,741	28	3,571	124	95,312
South Carolina	73	36,537	45	2,807	118	39,344
South Dakota	18	3,443	1	2	19	3,445
Tennessee	367	123,755	70	7,087	437	130,842
Texas	316	199,568	60	37,244	376	236,807
Utah	86	18,747	6	901	92	19,648
Vermont	30	7,853	1	2	31	7,855
Virgin Islands	3	2,594	1	2	4	2,596
Virginia	246	85,845	80	3,875	326	89,720
Washington	429	110,088	39	7,601	468	117,669
West Virginia	232	76,205	40	2,691	272	78,298
Wisconsin	711	280,869	63	5,422	774	286,291
Wyoming	21	1,249	2	206	23	1,455

Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor¹

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

EMPLOYERS' freedom of speech and the Wagner Act.—Decisions in two additional circuits defining the extent of the right of the employer to comment upon an election under the National Labor Relations Act may be added to those discussed in the August issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*. In *Reliance Manufacturing Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*,² the question was whether the company's campaign against the election of the union violated a court decree enjoining the company from interfering with its employees in their organizational rights. On the day preceding the election and on election day, the employer inserted a full-page advertisement in the local newspaper, containing only the slogan "Rely on Reliance" printed in large bold type. On the first of these two days, 28 of the employer's 30 foremen wore this legend attached to their clothing and in some cases added the further phrase, "Vote No." On election eve the company purchased drinks and lunch for the night-shift employees and permitted some who were wearing the anti-union signs to take leave with pay for the evening. The union was defeated in the election and the company celebrated with a party for the employees. These facts, said the Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals, disclosed interference with the employees' right to choose their own union. The contest between the employees was converted into one between a group of the employees and the company, in which the company allied itself with one of the factions to the disadvantage of the other. Although management may have the right in some circumstances to express its opinion as to a union or its preference between the unions, the court said, such right certainly does not extend to the point where the company becomes a participant in a contest to which it is not a party.

In *Schweitzer v. National Labor Relations Board*,³ the Circuit Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia held that a written appeal by the employer to the gratitude of its workers for numerous employee benefits was an unfair labor practice to the extent that, as the Board found, the appeal contained an implied threat that the enumerated benefits would be withdrawn if the union were successful in the election. The court accordingly sustained the Board's order which required the employer to advise its employees by letter that these

¹ Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

² Fed. (2d) (C. C. A. I, July 8, 1944).

³ Fed. (2d) (App. D. C., July 10, 1944).

benefits and its liberal labor policy would not be changed in the event of a union victory.

The majority of the court, however, disagreed with the Board's conclusion that interviews with some employees, for the purpose of satisfying their demands and thus discouraging unionization, coupled with the questioning of others as to their union activity, were part of a program to interfere with the right to organize. In reversing the Board on this point, the court observed that "only a few of the employees were interviewed and the character of the persuasion was very mild indeed." A dissent from this part of the decision by Justice Edgerton was based upon his conclusion that in the circumstances of the case the instances of anti-union argument were part of a general effort at interference and restraint. One of these instances involved a wage increase given to one of the active organizers, after a conversation in which the company representative attempted to dissuade him from his organizational activities. In the dissenting opinion it was argued that the court was bound by the decision in *Medo Photo Supply Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*,⁴ decided by the Supreme Court on April 10, 1944 (see July issue of Monthly Labor Review), in which it was held that "it was an unfair labor practice for petitioner, in response to the offer of its employees, to induce them by the grant of wage increases to leave the unions."

Interference with organizational activities by prohibiting distribution of literature on company property.—The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals, in *Le Tourneau Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*,⁵ reversed the decision of the National Labor Relations Board declaring that a general plant rule prohibiting posting and distribution of literature on the company's parking lots was, in the circumstances of the case, an unfair labor practice.

The employer, a large manufacturer employing 2,100 persons, owned the 6,000 acres of land surrounding the plant, including the area set aside for parking and for the bus terminal. Consequently, its employees who traveled to work either by auto or bus, alighted from and boarded the conveyances on the company property. The company, by rule, prohibited the distribution of manuals or other literature of any description by any "merchant, concern, company, or individual" on company property without having first secured permission from the personnel department. On the day of a representation election one of the organizers, without permission, distributed union circulars on the parking lot after working hours, and as a consequence was suspended for violating the rule. It was clear that the suspension was not provoked by antiunion bias but was imposed solely because the rule had been violated. The Board concluded that since all of the surrounding property was owned by the company and since a large number of the employees were accustomed to leave the plant by auto or bus immediately after work, the practical effect of the rule was the elimination of all organizational work among employees in the area of the plant. "Distribution of literature to employees is rendered virtually impossible under these circumstances, and it is an inescapable conclusion that self-organization is consequently seriously impeded." In balancing the employer's right to regulate its own property against the employee's right to organize, the Board held that the former must yield to the greater good.

⁴ 34 Sup. Ct. 830.
⁵ — Fed. (2d) — (C. C. A. 5, June 23, 1944).

The Fifth Circuit rejected this argument, holding that the employer "is not required by law to furnish a theater" for his employees and may enforce a rule requiring his employees to discuss and to act on the matter of self-organization elsewhere than on his property. The court cautioned that an employer's rule of this type is valid only if "not designed to impede organization and not discriminatorily applied."

Court review of War Labor Board orders.—The August issue of the Monthly Labor Review reported the decision of the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia, holding that the orders of the National War Labor Board were neither enforceable nor reviewable and therefore could not be enjoined.⁶ The case of *Montgomery Ward v. National War Labor Board*,⁷ subsequently decided by the same court, presented a somewhat different problem, since there the request for an injunction was based upon the theory that the company's failure to comply with the order of the War Labor Board would induce the Director of Economic Stabilization to exercise his authority to withhold from it governmental priorities, benefits, and privileges. The court indicated that a threat to exercise this power may provide a sufficient basis for injunctive relief against the Government, but held that since the company had failed to establish the existence of a threat, the case should be dismissed.

Interference with right of collective bargaining.—In *Richfield Oil Corp. v. National Labor Relations Board*,⁸ the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals decided that the National Labor Relations Board has the power to direct shipowners to grant union representatives access to the ships while in port, for the purpose of consulting with members aboard ship and for the purpose of investigating grievances.

Discriminatory discharge—back pay with or without reinstatement.—The Second Circuit Court of Appeals held that the National Labor Relations Board has authority to award back pay to the personal representative of a discriminatorily discharged employee who died during the reinstatement proceedings. It was further decided that in cases in which the discharged employee entered the Army during the reinstatement proceedings, the Board has authority to direct the employer not only to pay the wages lost as a result of the discharge but also to offer reinstatement to the employee upon his release from the Army (*National Labor Relations Board v. Revlon Products Corp.*).⁹

Application of National Labor Relations Act to banks.—In *National Labor Relations Board v. Northern Trust Co.*,¹⁰ the District Court for the Northern District of Illinois applied the doctrine established in the Polish National Alliance case¹¹ and decided that a bank is subject to the National Labor Relations Act in so far as its business affects interstate commerce.

Qualifications of union seeking certification.—Although the National Labor Relations Board in a representation proceeding does not ordinarily consider issues as to the character and activities of the labor organization seeking certification as the collective-bargaining representative, the Board will not place on the ballot any union whose policies and practices are admittedly controlled by supervisory employees. In the case of *Rochester & Pittsburgh Coal Co.* (No. 6-R-

⁶ *Employers Group of Motor Freight Carriers, Inc. v. National War Labor Board*, — Fed. (2d) — (App. D. C., June 2, 1944).

⁷ — Fed. (2d) — (App. D. C., June 15, 1944).

⁸ — Fed. (2d) — (C. C. A. 9, June 30, 1944).

⁹ — Fed. (2d) — (C. C. A. 2, July 20, 1944).

¹⁰ — Fed. Supp. — (D. C. Ill., July 3, 1944).

¹¹ 64 Sup. Ct. 60, June 5, 1944. (For summary, see *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1944, p. 123.)

396) the Board held that such control renders the union incapable of dealing, on behalf of ordinary nonsupervisory employees, at arm's length with the employer.

This principle was also applied in the case of *Toledo Stamping & Manufacturing Co.*¹² where the Board, in order to forestall any possibility of employer influence, refused to direct an election on a petition which revealed that the membership drive had been sponsored by supervisory employees. A subsequent petition, supported by new evidence demonstrating that the membership showing was not obtained with the assistance of the supervisory employees, was accepted by the Board.¹³

Settlement of grievances presented by employees to employer.—Once a bargaining agent has been designated by a majority of the employees, the employer may not thereafter deal with individual employees in any matter pertaining to the terms and conditions of employment but is under an exclusive obligation to negotiate the settlement of all such questions with the bargaining agent. Grievances as to wages, interference, promotions, upgrading, and all other elements of the employment relation are within this sphere and, although under the National Labor Relations Act the employee may present grievances directly to the employer, the employer must arrange their disposition through the representative of the union. (*United States Automatic Corp.*, Case No. 8-C-1578, N. L. R. B. 25.)

State regulation of labor unions.—The South Dakota Circuit Court for the Second Judicial Circuit on June 28, 1944, decided that the State could legitimately require unions to file annual financial statements with the Secretary of State but could neither forbid the solicitation of membership or collection of dues on agricultural premises nor prohibit the picketing of farms and the boycotting of farm products produced by nonunion labor (*American Federation of Labor v. Mickelson*).

Rights of employees under Pennsylvania Labor Relations Act.—The Pennsylvania Court of Common Pleas held that the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Act, patterned after the National Labor Relations Act, does not authorize the filing of a petition for a certification that the union does not represent the employees. The court recognized that if a petition of this kind were within the jurisdiction of the State board, "any employer or 30 percent of the employees could, by merely filing a petition with the board, compel a union to proceed to an election before the union had completed its task of organizing or before it was ready to test its strength. * * * It is obvious that it would be difficult for the union to obtain a majority of the employees at an election which was prematurely called by its opponents. Such a procedure is not calculated to encourage the practice and procedure of collective bargaining." (*Employees of G. C. Murphy & Co., Pa.* Ct. of Common Pleas, Allegheny Co., June 13, 1944.)

Wage and Hour Decisions

Production for commerce; irrigation employees.—Employees engaged in pumping and directing the flow of water for irrigation of farm lands are engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce, it was held by the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals in *Reynolds v. Salt*

¹² 85 N. L. R. B., No. 152.

¹³ 85 N. L. R. B., No. 228.

*River Valley Water Users Assn.*¹⁴ The duties of the employees consisted in maintaining, cleaning and repairing the canals, laterals, and ditches through which the water flowed to irrigate the farms. Some mowed and burned noxious grasses and weeds which, if permitted to grow without restraint, would clog the irrigation system and stop the vital flow of water. Others repaired the head gates, weirs, and other physical equipment controlling the flow of the water. A few were engaged in operating and servicing electric pumps drawing water from underground and causing electricity originating outside the State to flow through the association's lines.

The court said that the water supplied through irrigation was so closely and intimately connected with the production of crops for interstate commerce that the irrigation employees must be regarded as engaged in an occupation necessary to the production of such goods. "Quantitatively the major content of these cantaloupes, watermelons, lettuce, cabbage, broccoli, and carrots is the water which has been in part pumped for and all of it directed toward the plant roots by the appellee's employees." As a consequence, the employees were held to be engaged in the production of goods for commerce and subject to the requirements of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Application of Fair Labor Standards Act to employees of chain-store warehouses.—The divergence of opinion between the circuit courts concerning the application of the Fair Labor Standards Act to chain-store warehouse employees was widened by the First Circuit Court of Appeals in *Phillips v. Walling*,¹⁵ which held that employees of the central warehouse of a chain system, supplying the retail outlets, were not employees of a retail establishment within the meaning of the provision exempting such employees, and therefore were covered by the act.

The main office and warehouse is the place from which the supervising managerial activities of the entire enterprise are conducted. In its purchase, receipt, and distribution of large quantities of merchandise, the court said, it performs a function comparable to that of the wholesaler. The retail activities of selling and customer contact are not a part of its operation. It must therefore be considered as a separate unit of the chain system, distinct from the retail outlets, and its employees, like those of the independent wholesaler engaged in interstate commerce, are not exempt from the act.

In so holding, the court agreed with the Third Circuit Court of Appeals in *Walling v. American Stores Co.* (133 Fed. (2d.) 840) and disagreed with the Seventh Circuit in *Walling v. L. Wiemann Co.* (138 Fed. (2d.) 602, cert. denied) and with the Ninth Circuit in *Walling v. Bock* (139 Fed. (2d.) 268, cert. denied 321 U. S. 788).

Production of goods for commerce—building service and maintenance employees.—Employees engaged in servicing and maintaining the office building housing those who supervise and direct the processing, manufacturing, selling and distribution of dairy products in interstate commerce are engaged in the production of goods for commerce even though the physical activities of handling the products are conducted in a different location (*Borella v. Borden Co.*).¹⁶ In its decision to this effect, the Second Circuit Court of Appeals observed that there was "no reason that could have induced Congress, having

¹⁴—Fed. (2d.) ——(C. C. A. 9, June 30, 1944).

¹⁵—Fed. (2d.) ——(C. C. A. 1, July 20, 1944).

¹⁶—Fed. (2d.) ——(C. C. A. 2, July 28, 1944).

included employees who made tenantable the quarters of artisans and shipping clerks," as the Supreme Court decided in the Kirschbaum case (316 U. S. 517), "to exclude those who made tenantable quarters of the president, the managers, the cashiers, and superintendents" who direct the whole operation of an interstate business.

Unemployment Compensation

Illinois Unemployment Compensation Act—Dredge workers.—The Illinois Supreme Court held in *Grant Contracting Co. v. Murphy*,¹⁷ that employees aboard barges and dredges primarily engaged in deepening and improving the river channel were subject to the Illinois Unemployment Compensation Act. The act excluded from its coverage "service performed as an officer or member of the crew of a vessel on the navigable waters of the United States." The court ruled that the dredge workers were only incidentally engaged in moving the barges, being primarily occupied with dredging, and therefore were not crew members within the meaning of the exemption. This case is comparable to *Walling v. McWilliams Dredging Co.*,¹⁸ in which it was held that dredge workers are not "seamen" within the meaning of the exemption in the Fair Labor Standards Act and are therefore covered by that act in so far as they are engaged in interstate commerce.

Kentucky Unemployment Compensation Act—Taxicab drivers.—In *Bradley v. Kentucky*,¹⁹ the Court of Appeals of Kentucky held that taxicab drivers, although under contract providing that they were independent contractors uncontrolled and unsupervised by the employer, were nevertheless employees of the company, since it furnished all gasoline and oil, could terminate the contracts at any time without notice or cause, required the drivers to observe certain standards of conduct, held the licenses permitting the operation of the cabs, and agreed to furnish public liability insurance on the cabs. The drivers rented the cabs from the company and agreed to pay it 70 percent of their gross income each day, exclusive of tips.

California Unemployment Insurance Act—News delivery boys.—The California Supreme Court held that boys engaged in delivering shopping news and newspapers to homes are not independent contractors but are employees within the meaning of the California Unemployment Insurance Act (*California Employment Comm. v. Los Angeles Downtown Shopping News*).²⁰ The trial court had found that the boys were subject to the publisher's direction and control and could be discharged at will.

War Labor Board Decisions

Jurisdiction of the National War Labor Board.—The National War Labor Board held that even though one of the issues involved in a case certified to it was the refusal of the employer to bargain—a question determinable only by the National Labor Relations Board—it nevertheless was required to retain the case in order to provide the terms and conditions of employment which should govern the

¹⁷ N. E. —

¹⁸ Fed. Supp.—(N. D. Ill., June 19, 1944). For summary see *Monthly Labor Review*, August 1944 (p. 380).

¹⁹ 281 S. W. (2d) 417.

²⁰ 159 Pac. (2d) 342.

relationship between the employer and the bargaining agent which might ultimately prevail. (*Sears, Roebuck and Co.*, Case No. 111-3085-D.)

Extension of collective agreement to newly opened plant of employer.—The union, representing the employees in each of a company's two plants separated by a distance of several hundred miles, requested that the labor agreement in effect in the original plant should be extended to cover the employees in the newly organized plant. In denying the request, the Board observed that the only satisfactory procedure in the case was to examine the individual requests on the basis of their adaptability to the local conditions at the new plant, their consistency with Board policy, and their workability. (*Fairchild Engine & Airplane Corp.*, Case No. 111-4107-2.)

Application of State law to proceedings before National War Labor Board.—A State law forbidding employers to make deductions from wages other than those specifically authorized by employees does not apply to disputes before the War Labor Board, as the local law necessarily yields to the supervening Federal legislation. (*Universal Products Co.*, Case No. 111-3236-D.)

A similar problem arose in a proceeding before the Atlanta regional board which held that the State law prohibiting coercion of employees cannot operate to invalidate a maintenance-of-membership clause contained in an extended contract. The National Board refused to review the case. (*Ingalls Iron Works Co.*, Case No. 111-7502-D.)



Women in Industry

Effect of "Cutbacks" on Women's Employment

EFFECTS of so-called "cutbacks" and other war production adjustments on the employment of women in a number of labor-surplus areas are shown in a report issued in April 1944 by the Office of War Information, from which the data here given were taken.

Information was obtained principally from the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, which sent representatives into a sample of labor-surplus areas where contract cancelations and production reductions had been ordered in recent months. Although these visits were made primarily to study the community impact of war-contract cancelations, they revealed that such cancelations and other production adjustments were especially significant in relation to the employment of women. Reports made by the U. S. Employment Service to the War Manpower Commission also provided data on the effect of such production changes on the employment of women.

The areas studied were (1) the St. Louis industrial area, including St. Louis, Weldon Springs, and St. Louis County, Mo.; (2) western New York and Pennsylvania (Jamestown and Dunkirk, N. Y., and Meadville and Butler, Pa.); (3) northeastern Pennsylvania (Wilkes-Barre, Williamsport, and Berwick, Pa.); and (4) Tennessee and Virginia (Memphis, Nashville, and Chattanooga, Tenn., and Radford and Dublin, Va.).

In a few instances, working hours were reduced after a contract cancellation in order to spread the remaining employment among more persons. As a general rule, however, working schedules were not changed, and the workers made idle by a productive shift were released for other employment.

Usually, the laid-off workers quickly found other jobs, but many of them, both men and women, had to accept pay below the rates they had earned in ordnance plants. This frequently entailed less reluctance than might have been anticipated. Contract cancelations or reductions within an area caused workers generally to feel less secure in war jobs, and made positions with post-war possibilities seem more attractive, even at lower rates of pay. However, such considerations are probably less important in the case of women who regard themselves as workers for the duration than for those who will continue to be chief support for the family.

In virtually every case in which employment declined because of a "cutback," a number of the women released did not seek other work but dropped out of the labor market. Other workers, especially women, did not seek immediate reemployment but stayed at home for a period to obtain a rest.

In general, the adjustments to such production changes seemed to take place fairly rapidly. The unemployment resulting was usually

small, and a part of this appeared to be caused principally by reluctance to accept jobs at lower wage rates than those which had been paid in the war plants.

In many of the towns visited, rumors of "cutbacks" had been current in advance of specific announcements, and these rumors usually greatly exaggerated the actual extent of the reduction in production and employment. Such rumors adversely affected morale and made difficult the maintenance of production on a satisfactory basis.

The Effects in Individual Areas

The effect of so-called "cutbacks" on the employment of women in some of the different areas is indicated below.

St. Louis.—In the St. Louis area, women retired from the labor market in large numbers when the ordnance plants were cut back late in 1943.

Within a month of being laid off at a Forest Park plant, 1,000 women were notified that work was available at another plant operated by the same management. Although there was to be no change in pay rates, fewer than one out of every four of the women responded. In comparison, two out of five men called back returned to ordnance work. Some of the women who failed to return to work undoubtedly had other jobs or prospects, but the Employment Service was of the opinion that a larger proportion had left the area or were no longer interested in working. Another possible reason for the poor response was that the call-back occurred during December, and the women may have been resting over the Christmas holidays.

Negro women who were laid off at the ordnance plants found it especially difficult to get other industrial employment, for the ordnance plants are among the few industrial establishments in the area which accept them.

Skills developed in ordnance are not generally transferable to other industries, as a result of which many of the dismissed women found new employment only by taking pay cuts. In many instances, women went from rates of from 85 to 90 cents per hour down to 45 or 50 cents.

Claim loads of the Unemployment Compensation Commission, which included weekly repeat visits as well as new claims, were 800 per week before the lay-off and rose to 1,500 per week during the lay-off. Many were filed by women.

Following the contract cancellations at Weldon Springs, many women chose to remain at home rather than travel 25 or more miles to St. Louis for new jobs.

The general attitude in St. Louis, according to the reports, is that while the present ordnance cutbacks had little effect on the life of the community, others to come may have more serious consequences.

Dunkirk, N. Y.—Hardly any of the 150 women in the group of 500 workers recently released by 2 plants were completely dependent on their own earnings for a livelihood. All could have been placed at once in local industries but they appeared to be unwilling to take on "heavy jobs." None indicated any inclination to migrate to other areas. Only 48 persons—men and women—had registered with the Employment Service for new jobs in February.

Meadville, Pa.—About 3,000 workers were laid off from an ordnance plant at Meadville between June 1943 and April 1944. This group

included about 400 women, the majority of whom returned to their homes. Half of these women lived in the town, and the remainder were drawn from areas within a 90-mile radius.

Berwick, Pa.—A number of persons were laid off between February 1943 and February 1944, because of three contract cancelations in Berwick, but most of them were rehired shortly afterward as new contracts were received. The most recent cancellation was in armor plate, but many of the laid-off workers have already been reemployed. It was estimated that by early summer 2,000 new workers would probably be needed.

Many women were included in the lay-offs; some immediately transferred to the textile mills, but most chose to wait for reemployment at the war plant.

Wilkes-Barre, Pa.—Eighty women were among the 350 workers released by 2 plants in this area. Although Wilkes-Barre is listed as a labor-surplus area, the surplus represents unskilled labor, while a shortage of skilled workers is reported. In February only 15 women and 7 men of those released were drawing unemployment compensation.

One plant in the area, to reduce the effect of a cancellation, shortened the work schedule from a 7-day 56-hour week to a 5-day 40-hour week. This made it unnecessary to discharge any workers, but 10 girls quit and were not replaced. A company representative reported that there had been a definite decrease in productivity because of the effect of the lay-offs on the morale of the workers.

In another Wilkes-Barre plant, two-thirds of the 130 workers laid off were women. Approximately 80 per cent of the released women remained in the labor market, many of them taking jobs in textile mills with the expectation of later returning to the war plants.

Williamsport, Pa.—Of nearly 400 laid off in one plant in 1944, only 52 were women. The War Manpower Commission reported that a substantial number of these dropped out of the labor market. The January report of the WMC area director stated "many married women who were released returned to their homes to take a much-needed rest or to complete long-delayed domestic tasks such as general house cleaning, sewing, etc." Considerable dissatisfaction was noted among the laid-off workers, many of whom found new jobs only at lower rates of pay.

Displacement of workers, chiefly in ordnance and aircraft plants, was expected to total 2,800 in the first 6 months of 1944, but most lay-offs would be temporary and no significant continued unemployment was expected to result. Despite contract cancelations, nearly 1,000 more women will be needed in the next few months.

Chattanooga, Tenn.—A serious problem of replacement of workers is reported for this area, since the available workers are mostly women, and men are needed for the heavy jobs in iron and steel plants, coal mines, and ordnance works. The problem is met in some degree by the movement of male workers from other industries, particularly textiles.

Contract cancelations have occurred in several industries in the area, and a policy of notifying workers in advance is now common. Thus, a plant machining small parts circulated an announcement of a pending reduction in production schedules, and indicated that workers who had other jobs in sight or who wished to leave would be released immediately. About 40 workers quit, and the 100 who

were dismissed later were transferred to nearby areas within 2 weeks. Several plants met their problem by not replacing workers who quit.

Memphis, Tenn.—When 129 women were dismissed from jobs in a plant making cartridge clips and machine-gun belt links, the management put most of them to work in departments fabricating light rubber products.

Before the war, Memphis was not an industrial area. Establishment of war industries proved a magnet for workers within a 100-mile radius. Most of the recruits retain ties to the soil, and many take time off during the busiest part of the farm season. Contract cancellations would not prove disastrous to this group. Another source of labor has been women, mostly city girls 18 to 25, who, except for the war, would be store and office workers, or unemployed. It is this group that accounts for much of the present labor surplus in Memphis. Besides girls from nearby towns, the group of women seeking work includes wives and sweethearts of servicemen stationed near the city.

A large lay-off of workers or a series of employment reductions in this area would "cause a real stagnation, the duration of which would depend on the speed with which workers could be moved out of the area."

Nashville, Tenn.—This area is expected to have a labor surplus of 2,000 to 3,000 workers by July, but the majority of this group will consist of women interested in local work only.

In December, 2 ordnance plants had a combined lay-off of 50 workers, nearly all women, but they were quickly absorbed in various industries in the city. One of the plants was retooling and would later recruit trainees. Six other plants expecting small reductions in production schedules before July reported that they will decrease their employment by less than 350.

Radford and Dublin, Va.—War plants in these areas employed more than 1,900 women before the lay-offs made last year. In Radford, women never exceeded 20 percent of the total number of wage earners and generally made up between 12 to 15 percent of the work force. In the New River plant in the Dublin area, female labor ran as high as 25 percent of employment. Quite a few of the women were recruited from the textile industry and apparently returned to it when the contract cancellations occurred.

The Radford office of the Employment Service had records on 1,000 of the workers after their lay-off at the Dublin plant. Many transferred to the Radford war project, some to a rayon plant, and 150 to local jobs. In Radford, where the employment reductions were smaller and extended over a period of time, most of the workers laid off were able to return to their former jobs.

Women War Workers' Post-War Job Plans

BECAUSE of the deep concern in the matter of post-war employment, two surveys were recently made, one in Los Angeles and the other in New York State, to ascertain the post-war intentions of women war workers in these localities.

Los Angeles.—The Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce research committee reports that it is important to know that its study "reflects the attitude of more than 65,000 persons; that responses indicate 89 percent of the men and 81 percent of the women war workers wish to remain in Los Angeles County, while 94 percent of the former industrial employees now on military leaves of absence plan to return."¹ As indicative of the attitude of relatively recent arrivals is the fact that 80 percent of the men and 79 percent of the women war workers who have been in the county less than 2 years propose to stay after the war comes to an end. The percentages of the women covered by the survey who expressed themselves as having various plans for the post-war period are shown below:

	Percent of total
In the county less than 2 years and plan to stay.....	79
Intend to remain in county.....	81
Desire to stay with present employers.....	51
Desire factory work ¹	42
Plan to continue work of some kind.....	62
Housewives who will return to their homes.....	64

¹ Only 3 percent of the female workers did factory work previous to the war.

New York State.—Only 34 of 175 women in New York who reported on their post-war plans had reason to believe that they would not be in the post-war job market.² Of these 175 women, 21 anticipated remaining at home if husbands and sweethearts came back from the war, 13 were planning to go to college, art school, or beauty school, or to take some other type of professional training, and the remainder said that they would possibly or surely continue to work or to look for employment after the war. Although they hoped to be on the same job, some of them thought that it was not probable that their present establishment would retain them.

The general feeling was that the servicemen should have their jobs back, but "we'll be looking for work elsewhere."

While the age groups ranged from teen-age girls to grandmothers, the majority of the women interviewed were young and unmarried. Many in their mid-twenties remembered jobless days or low wages. Some older women were working after having been at home for years. Their motives for entering gainful employment were to supplement the family income, to help the war effort, and to learn a new and important trade.

The women who had worked previously came from a variety of job backgrounds, some of which had a bearing on their future plans. Of the 250, 12 percent came from clerical or professional fields, including ballet dancing, fashion designing, nursing, and teaching. They were in the plants "for the duration" and had something to look forward to or to fall back on after the war. Another 12 percent had a peacetime trade, in textiles, garment manufacturing, or other consumer-goods industries. They, too, could "go back" after the war. Fourteen percent, who had been in the plants for more than 2 years, hoped that seniority and good work records would protect them during the lay-offs.

¹ American Savings and Loan News, Cincinnati, May 1944 (p. 212).

² What My War Job Means. New York, Bureau of Research, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, 1944.

The remaining women declared that the jobs they held were the best they had ever had and they hoped they would never go back to low wages and unemployment. Over a fourth of the group had left low-paid service trades such as housework, and hotel, restaurant, dry-cleaning, and sales jobs.

Thirty-five percent had steady employment for the first time. Before the United States entered the war they were at home, in school, or going from one job to another.

Because of serious experience with discrimination on account of race and lack of training, the Negro women were particularly anxious about their post-war employment and were endeavoring to become properly qualified for future jobs. For instance, an art teacher working as a lathe operator on the midnight shift was taking additional training in art in the daytime, a clerical worker had elected to work on the second shift in order that she might study stenography during the day, and a welder with a midnight shift was in training as a laboratory technician.



Employment of Women by Railroads, January 1944

IN January 1944, some 106,000 women were employed by class I steam railways, exclusive of switching and terminal companies—an increase of 67.6 percent above the January 1943 figure. In these 2 months they constituted 7.80 and 4.79 percent, respectively, of all the employees in the reporting divisions.¹

Of 14,385 executives, officials, and staff assistants of the reporting divisions, only 18 were females in January of both 1943 and 1944. The groups of extra gangmen included 1,028 females in January 1944, as compared to 375 in January 1943. Among the section men at the later date there were 1,185 females; only 260 were reported for the same month of the preceding year. The number of female coach cleaners rose in the period under review from 3,263 to 5,502 or about 69 percent, while female baggage, parcel-room, and station attendants increased from 594 to 1,574 or approximately 165 percent.

From January 1944 to April 1944 the number of female steam-railway workers expanded to 112,063, or about 6 percent.

The following table shows the distribution of women employees and all employees, by major occupational groups. It reveals the very large proportion (31.35 percent) of females in January 1944 in the professional, clerical, and general group. In the maintenance of equipment and stores women formed 5.83 percent of all employees, an increase of 128.36 percent during the year. In January 1944, only 250 females were employed in the transportation (train and engine) group, but this was over 60 times the number reported for January 1943.

¹ Number of Females Employed by Steam Railways, Month of January 1943 and Month of January 1944 (Washington, Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics). Minographed.

Females Employed on Class I Steam Railways in January 1943 and January 1944¹

Occupational group	Year	Males and females	Females	
			Number	Percent of total in occupational group
Total (all reporting divisions in which females are included)	1944	1,059,449	105,901	9.72
	1943	935,917	63,187	6.76
Grand total (all reporting divisions)	1944	1,357,252	105,901	7.80
	1943	1,319,480	63,187	4.79
Executives, officials, and staff assistants	1944	14,385	18	.13
	1943	13,563	18	.13
Professional, clerical, and general	1944	224,474	70,379	31.35
	1943	210,196	48,138	22.90
Maintenance of way and structures	1944	231,360	2,402	1.04
	1943	211,955	745	.35
Maintenance of equipment and stores	1944	369,527	21,545	5.83
	1943	341,681	9,439	2.76
Transportation (other than train, engine, and yard)	1944	188,096	11,273	7.13
	1943	147,924	4,843	3.27
Transportation (yard masters, switch-tenders, and hostlers)	1944	4,678	34	.73
	1943	86,929	250	.29
Transportation (train and engine)	1944	9,668	4	.04

¹ Data do not include switching and terminal companies.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wages in the Malt-Liquor Industry, Spring and Summer of 1943¹

Summary

WAGE earners in the malt-liquor industry were the highest-paid workers among 11 major food-producing industries in 1943. Median rates for 20 city areas covered in a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics ranged from 62 cents for custodial workers to \$1.40 for class A electricians. In general, maintenance workers were paid the highest average hourly earnings in each of the cities studied, whereas the earnings of custodial workers were consistently lower than those of workers in any other occupation. The processing occupations, which included nearly two-thirds of the workers studied, were generally in the middle of the wage scale. The three largest occupational groups in the processing departments—bottle sorters, bottle washers, and cellar workers—had median average earnings of 88, 89, and 98 cents an hour, respectively. Substantial variations in occupational earnings were found among the cities studied. The level of earnings in Detroit, San Francisco, and Los Angeles was relatively high in comparison with the national median. On the whole, the lowest rates were paid to workers in smaller cities.

Development and Characteristics of the Industry

Modern production of such alcoholic malt beverages as beer, porter, ale, and stout is the outgrowth of an old-world craft. Monasteries and castles of feudal lords were the brewing establishments of the Middle Ages. The craft had developed into a significant industry in Europe by the time America was discovered. Our colonial period found breweries operating in conjunction with agricultural activities on large plantations and farms, but brewing for commercial purposes was slow to develop in America. The business was neither large enough nor well enough organized to be considered an industry until the middle of the 19th century. Between that time and 1914, the last normal year prior to national prohibition, the industry had expanded to about 1,200 brewing establishments, employing more than 62,000 wage earners. The total production for 1914 was over 66,000,000 barrels and was valued at \$380,000,000.

Largely because of the influence of State and local prohibition, the industry in the United States gradually declined from 1914 until 1920, when national prohibition limited the manufacture of cereal beverages

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Ruth F. Sheppard, under the direction of Edna M. Olsen.

to products with an alcoholic content of less than half of 1 percent. A few brewing companies modified their products to conform with the law, some converted to another type of production, and many went out of operation entirely.

At the time of relegalization, in March 1933, the demand was principally for draught beer. More than 70 percent of the 1935 production was marketed in the form of draught beer, and many breweries invested heavily in equipment to meet this demand. Gradually, bottled and canned beer became the popular choice. By 1943, less than 40 percent of the total production was sold in kegs. Those producers who were not in a position to install machinery to meet this changed demand were forced out of business, while others converted to modern mass-production methods, and were able to expand their facilities as demand for the product increased. In 1934, the 725 establishments in the industry produced less than 38 million barrels of malt liquor and employed approximately 30,000 wage earners. By 1943, the number of establishments had decreased to 467, but production had risen to over 71 million barrels, an increase of nearly 90 percent over 1934. It is estimated that the malt-liquor industry employed a total of 45,500 wage earners in 1943. Thus, although the number of establishments decreased between 1934 and 1943, production and employment increased steadily.

Since the beginning of the war, the industry has experienced various restrictions and regulations. One of the greatest obstacles has been the restriction on the use of malted grains and malt syrups. Nevertheless, brewers have been successful in supplementing their malt supply with various unrationed cereals, and production has continued to increase in spite of wartime restrictions.

The malt-liquor industry is relatively small when compared with many other manufacturing industries. In terms of total value of product and number of wage earners employed, however, it ranks in the upper quarter of the food-manufacturing group. In an average year, brewing establishments consume the products of approximately 3 million acres of farm land.

Two byproducts, "spent grain" and brewers' yeast, have recently added to the importance of the brewery. "Spent grain" is a high-protein, residual product resulting from the brewery's processing of cereals. It is estimated that 2½ million tons, wet weight, of this product were fed to livestock in the United States during 1943. Brewers' yeast provides a high-quality protein and is an excellent source of thiamin for dietary purposes. Once a waste product, it is today a commercial product of significance. About 25 million pounds of yeast are being recovered annually at the present time.

Although the malt-liquor industry is widely scattered geographically, the greatest concentration of establishments is in the large-city areas of the Northeastern and North Central States. Over half of the breweries in the United States are in the six States of Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

The majority of the establishments in the malt-liquor industry are under corporate ownership, and many of them represent closed corporations. Historically, the industry has been largely a lineal one, and financing has remained within family groups.

The modern brewery is extensively mechanized, and most of the occupations found in the actual processing of the product require only moderate skill. Nevertheless, wages in the industry are relatively

high. A comparison of gross average hourly earnings of brewery workers with those of workers in 10 other major food-manufacturing industries reveals that the earnings of brewery workers are highest.

THE LABOR FORCE

Historically, brewing has generally been considered as a craft, and many of the workers employed in the industry have entered the brewery expecting it to be a lifelong trade. The labor force of the malt-liquor industry, therefore, has always remained relatively stable. Except in the central office, the industry has employed male workers almost exclusively. Military demands have recently created an increase in labor turnover, and some plants, notably in the West, have extended their labor supply by employing a few women workers. At the time of the Bureau's survey, women were found to be employed in 9 of the 24 occupations selected for study, but not in sufficient numbers to make feasible the presentation of wage data. The employment of women occurred most frequently in the bottling departments. None of the plants studied reported female workers in the malting or brewing departments.

Most of the occupations in the modern mechanized brewery do not involve any great amount of manual work, since the product is usually moved along through the entire process by conveyors. There is, however, a great deal of exactness and accuracy required of the workers. In the bottling departments the washing, filling, and capping, and the pasteurization of the filled bottles are all "line" processes requiring the worker's supervision of the line and a certain amount of dexterity and agility in working around the rapidly moving machines. Some of the occupations in this department, such as bottle sorting and inspecting, require the worker's close and continual attention. In the malting and brewing departments, there is less assembly-line processing than in the bottling departments, and greater exactness and accuracy are required. The kettle men, for example, must exercise considerable care in following the formula and obtaining correct proportions of the ingredients in the primary processing of the beer. The still men, or brewers as they are sometimes called, are responsible for the preparation of the yeast culture and condition of the brew until completion of the fermenting process. The malt-house men are, as the name denotes, employed in the malt house, where, by application of moisture and heat, the barley is germinated to produce malt. These men perform tasks of a manual nature as well as duties requiring a comparatively high degree of responsibility. Several of the plants included in this study did not report workers in this occupation; these plants buy their malt already prepared and do not germinate the grain themselves.

Although none of the occupations found in the modern brewery is considered particularly dangerous, certain ones do involve some risk. There is, for instance, the continual danger of the bottles' exploding and cutting the workers. Also, in the packaging of draft beer, the kegs used as containers must be coated with a fine layer of pitch, to prevent the beer from taking on the flavor of the wood. The pitchmen prepare the hot pitch and apply it to the inside of the keg, usually by means of a mechanical spray. It is the practice of some plants to supply the pitchmen with special uniforms to protect them against the splashing of the hot pitch.

The prevalence of unionization in the industry is indicated by the fact that all but 2 of the 110 establishments covered in the present survey were operating under contracts with labor unions. The majority of the companies reported contracts with the International Union of United Brewery, Flour, Cereal and Soft Drink Workers of America, an independent organization. The few remaining plants were operating under contract with the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen & Helpers of America, an A. F. of L. affiliate.

Scope and Method of Survey

The wage data presented in this report were collected in conjunction with the Bureau's survey of occupational wage rates, for use by the War Labor Board. The report covers 110 malt-liquor establishments in 20 urban areas² scattered throughout the United States. With the exception of New York City and Philadelphia, these 20 areas include all of the more important and a number of the minor brewing centers. All of the plants in 19 of the areas and half of the plants in one area (St. Louis) are covered by this report. These establishments constitute approximately a fourth of the total number of plants in operation during 1943 and account for well over half of the estimated 45,000 wage earners employed by the industry in that year.

The data on earnings refer to pay-roll periods in the spring and summer of 1943 and represent 13,200 male workers in 24 selected key occupations. For the St. Louis area, where a 50-percent sample of the industry was studied, the wage data have been assigned double weight in order to give adequate representation to this area. The occupations selected for study represent the various levels of skill found in breweries and are reasonably characteristic of the industry.

The data presented were obtained by trained field representatives of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, from pay-roll and related plant records. Standard job descriptions were used in classifying the workers by occupation, in order to obtain maximum comparability among the various establishments studied.

Hourly Earnings

WAGE-PAYMENT PRACTICES

Each of the 64 plants for which information on overtime provisions was available paid time and a half for all work over 40 hours per week, and 56 of the plants also paid this overtime rate for all work in excess of 8 hours a day. In 2 additional plants, only the union employees were paid time and a half for work above 8 hours a day.

Seventy-two plants reported more than one shift in operation. About two-fifths of these plants paid differentials for late-shift work. These differentials ranged from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 cents or more per hour, but 2½ cents was the most common. Three of the plants operating 3 shifts paid a premium for third-shift work but not for second-shift work.

Nearly all of the workers in the malt-liquor industry are paid on a time basis. Incentive methods of wage payment were reported for a

²In addition to a central city, many of these areas include suburbs or neighboring cities in which the same general level of wages prevails.

portion of the workers in only 2 of the 24 occupations studied—namely, truck drivers (not including driver-salesmen) and working foremen. Truck drivers in a number of breweries were compensated by bonus payments based on the number of kegs or cases hauled per day, and working foremen in one brewery were likewise paid under a bonus system. The incentive earnings of these workers are reflected in the wage data presented in this report.

TREND IN AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

According to data compiled by the Bureau's Employment Statistics Division, there has been a very modest upward trend in gross average hourly earnings since January 1941. This upward trend is due in part, however, to a substantial increase in the average number of hours worked per week. In January 1941, average hourly earnings for the malt-liquor industry were reported as 95 cents an hour, with an average workweek of 36.4 hours. For the same month in 1942, average earnings were 98 cents per hour, and average hours worked were 39 a week. In July 1943, average hourly earnings amounted to \$1.06, with an average of 46.6 hours worked per week. Reduced to straight time on an estimated basis, average hourly earnings increased from 94 cents in January 1941 to 98 cents in July 1943, an approximate increase of only 4.3 percent.

These general earnings data probably underestimate the extent of wage increases awarded to individual workers. Because of the substantial addition of inexperienced workers to the labor force, the lower rates paid to these new workers undoubtedly offset increases awarded to older and more experienced workers, and thus minimize the apparent amount of the wage change between January 1941 and July 1943. Nevertheless, it appears that wage increases in this industry have been less substantial than in many other manufacturing industries.

HOURLY EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

In the accompanying table, the basic wage material obtained during the Bureau's survey is shown for 20 wage areas arranged roughly in the order of their geographical location. The number of workers and average hourly earnings, excluding shift differentials and premium payments for overtime work, are shown for 24 selected occupations.

Median average hourly earnings, which are presented by occupation for the 20 city areas studied, ranged from 62 cents an hour for janitors and watchmen, to \$1.40 an hour for class A electricians. In general, workers in the maintenance occupations were paid the highest average hourly earnings, while the earnings of custodial workers were consistently lower than those of workers in other occupations. The processing occupations, which included nearly two-thirds of the workers studied, were generally in the middle of the wage scale. On the whole, workers in the malting and brewing departments were paid higher hourly rates than workers in the bottling departments. This difference is due, at least in part, to the fact that a greater degree of skill

is required of the workers employed in either the malt house or the brewing department. Median averages for four processing occupations—keg fillers, kettle men, malt-house men, and beer stillmen—amounted to \$1.00 or more an hour. The three largest occupational groups in the processing departments—bottle sorters, bottle washers, and cellar workers—had median average earnings of 88, 89 and 98 cents an hour respectively. These three occupations together accounted for nearly one-half (47.9 percent) of all the workers classified in processing occupations. Median average earnings for filling- and capping-machine tenders, another numerically important group, amounted to 89 cents an hour. The relatively high median average (\$1.01 an hour) shown for truck drivers results from bonus payments to these workers in 15 plants. In arriving at the median averages, no attempt has been made to assign different weights to the individual cities. These averages are intended only to provide a rough indication of the general level of occupational earnings in the areas studied.

Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Male Workers in Selected Occupations in the Malt-Liquor Industry, by Area, Spring and Summer of 1943

Occupation	All areas		Baltimore, Md.		Detroit, Mich.		South Bend, Ind.	
	Total num- ber of workers	Median average hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Ave- rage hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Ave- rage hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Ave- rage hourly earnings
Maintenance:								
Carpenters, class A.....	61	\$1.28	8	\$1.41	8	\$1.44	2	(1)
Coopers.....	110	1.06	—	—	5	1.28	—	—
Electricians, class A.....	95	1.40	5	1.40	10	1.73	—	—
Machinists, class A.....	306	1.33	8	1.36	19	1.62	5	(1)
Pitchmen.....	63	.98	4	.93	2	(1)	2	(1)
Supervision: Working-foremen, processing departments.....	198	1.16	13	1.04	18	1.37	—	—
Processing: Bottle sorters.....	1,680	.88	103	.88	47	1.10	10	(1)
Bottle washers.....	1,208	.89	41	.88	69	1.09	19	\$0.91
Cellar workers.....	1,187	.98	77	.93	110	1.27	10	1.00
Cleaners, brewing equipment and tanks.....	594	.98	38	.98	21	1.25	4	.98
Filling- and capping-machine tenders.....	964	.89	28	.88	141	1.08	12	.98
Fillers, keg.....	427	1.00	17	.98	34	1.22	4	.99
Kettle men.....	562	1.02	32	.95	33	1.27	7	.99
Malt-house men.....	291	1.08	—	—	2	(1)	—	—
Millers and grinders.....	277	.98	4	.93	—	—	—	—
Pasteurizer tenders.....	796	.90	37	.88	26	1.18	7	.95
Still men, beer.....	529	1.03	15	.95	17	1.28	7	.99
Inspection and testing:								
Inspectors, barrels and kegs.....	283	.98	10	.94	10	1.28	2	(1)
Inspectors, bottles.....	549	.88	23	.88	15	1.11	9	.89
Recording and control: Checkers.....	337	.91	33	.94	44	1.07	12	.94
Material movement:								
Conveyor men.....	781	.88	92	.88	53	1.12	10	(1)
Truck drivers.....	1,481	1.01	91	1.16	391	1.28	—	—
Custodial:								
Janitors.....	184	.62	2	(1)	25	.99	—	—
Watchmen.....	207	.62	7	.67	18	1.05	1	(1)

Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Male Workers in Selected Occupations in the Malt-Liquor Industry, by Area, Spring and Summer of 1943—Continued

Occupation	Chicago, Ill.		Milwaukee, Wis.		Minneapolis- St. Paul, Minn.		Omaha, Nebr.	
	Total number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Number of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Number of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings
Maintenance:								
Carpenters, class A	5	\$1.55	—	—	4	\$1.28	—	—
Coopers	23	1.15	13	(1)	19	1.03	—	—
Electricians, class A	12	1.45	—	—	5	1.36	—	—
Machinists, class A	6	1.62	—	—	17	1.16	—	—
Pitchmen	8	1.10	13	(1)	33	1.04	—	—
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments	29	1.33	8	(1)	14	1.10	11	\$1.20
Processing:								
Bottle sorters	75	.98	448	\$0.98	69	.95	—	—
Bottle washers	90	.98	83	.98	57	.94	10	.95
Cellar workers	40	1.10	217	1.04	92	.98	18	.95
Cleaners, brewing equipment and tanks	46	1.11	131	.99	148	.96	—	—
Filling- and capping-machine tenders	126	.90	70	.96	102	.95	16	.95
Fillers, keg	30	1.10	104	1.00	67	1.04	4	.95
Kettle men	47	1.11	76	1.05	79	1.05	12	.95
Malt-house men	—	—	58	1.06	162	1.00	—	—
Millers and grinders	6	1.12	10	(1)	185	.99	—	—
Pasteurizer tenders	45	.98	50	.92	75	.95	20	.95
Still men, beer	81	1.11	55	1.02	81	1.03	—	—
Inspection and testing:								
Inspectors, barrels and kegs	13	1.10	190	1.00	10	1.04	—	—
Inspectors, bottles	18	.98	28	.91	20	.97	18	.95
Recording and control: Checkers	11	.98	—	—	23	.96	14	.95
Material movement:								
Conveyor men	2	(1)	48	(1)	13	(1)	—	—
Truck drivers	129	1.10	—	—	144	1.02	—	—
Custodial:								
Janitors	4	.77	17	(1)	5	.62	—	—
Watchmen	22	.61	3	(1)	4	.78	7	.85

Occupation	St. Louis, Mo.		Cleveland, Ohio		Columbus, Ohio		Cincinnati, Ohio	
	Total number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Number of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings
Maintenance:								
Carpenters, class A	—	—	1	(1)	2	(1)	10	\$1.15
Coopers	18	\$1.06	8	\$1.03	2	(1)	8	1.05
Electricians, class A	34	1.50	2	(1)	—	—	5	1.25
Machinists, class A	162	1.50	—	—	3	(1)	7	1.25
Pitchmen	—	—	7	.95	4	\$0.87	17	.95
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments	—	—	10	1.04	6	1.03	6	1.10
Processing:								
Bottle sorters	108	.90	9	.78	16	.65	266	.95
Bottle washers	230	.90	22	.78	22	.64	—	.95
Cellar workers	262	1.03	40	.99	13	.87	83	.95
Cleaners, brewing equipment and tanks	—	—	10	.99	14	.83	25	.95
Filling- and capping-machine tenders	102	.90	46	.87	9	.79	69	.95
Fillers, keg	44	1.02	25	1.00	8	.87	40	.95
Kettle men	110	1.04	22	1.00	7	.92	27	1.05
Malt-house men	—	—	—	—	3	(1)	—	—
Millers and grinders	—	—	12	1.00	1	(1)	20	.95
Pasteurizer tenders	234	.90	63	.79	8	.81	73	.95
Still men, beer	132	1.03	4	(1)	1	(1)	61	.95
Inspection and testing:								
Inspectors, barrels and kegs	—	—	5	.97	6	.81	17	.95
Inspectors, bottles	168	.90	12	.79	9	.65	96	.70
Recording and control: Checkers	38	.76	25	.90	6	.75	31	.85
Material movement:								
Conveyor men	—	—	5	(1)	6	.77	237	.75
Truck drivers	256	.96	17	1.30	63	.85	6	(1)
Custodial:								
Janitors	56	.87	11	.69	2	(1)	3	(1)
Watchmen	46	.62	9	.59	—	—	10	.85

Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Male Workers in Selected Occupations in the Malt-Liquor Industry, by Area, Spring and Summer of 1943—Continued

Occupation	Louisville, Ky.		Tampa, Fla.		New Orleans, La.		Houston-Gal- veston, Tex.	
	Total num- ber of workers	Average hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings	Num- ber of workers	Aver- age hourly earnings
Maintenance:								
Carpenters, class A.....	1	(1)	2	(1)	8	\$1.15	3	(1)
Coopers.....	2	(1)	2	(1)			2	(1)
Electricians, class A.....	3	(1)			2	(1)	1	(1)
Machinists, class A.....	4	\$1.15	2	(1)	5	1.33	12	\$1.54
Pitchmen.....					1	(1)		
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments.....	1	(1)	2	(1)	15	1.16		
Processing:								
Bottle sorters.....	47	.83	6	\$0.83	192	.79	82	.96
Bottle washers.....	49	.83	4	.70	109	.82	19	(1)
Cellar workers.....	19	.96	11	.85	46	.98	21	1.02
Cleaners, brewing equipment and tanks.....	30	.94	7	.67	4	(1)	7	(1)
Filling- and capping-machine tenders.....	12	.86	2	(1)	29	.82	14	1.02
Fillers, keg.....	14	.98			5	.98	7	(1)
Kettle men.....	24	1.00	4	.82	15	.99	4	1.11
Malt-house men.....					11	.98	18	(1)
Millers and grinders.....	2	(1)			9	.98	2	(1)
Pasteurizer tenders.....	71	.87	3	(1)	26	.88	15	(1)
Still men, beer.....					12	.98	9	(1)
Inspection and testing:								
Inspectors, barrels and kegs.....	3	(1)	2	(1)	5	.98		
Inspectors, bottles.....	15	.83	6	.63	16	.82	2	(1)
Recording and control: Checkers.....	1	(1)			10	(1)		
Material movement:								
Conveyor men.....	18	.84	6	(1)	15	.83		
Truck drivers.....	43	1.00	6	.73	16	.84		
Custodial:								
Janitors.....	12	.62	2	(1)	10	.44	26	.55
Watchmen.....	14	.62			9	.45	6	(1)

Occupation	San Antonio, Tex.		Oklahoma City, Okla.		Spokane, Wash.		San Francisco, Calif.		Los Angeles, Calif.	
	Num- ber of work- ers	Aver- age hourly earnings								
Maintenance:										
Carpenters, class A.....	1	(1)					6	\$1.50		
Coopers.....	1	(1)					4	1.24	3	(1)
Electricians, class A.....	3	(1)					12	1.52	2	(1)
Machinists, class A.....	6	\$1.25					36	1.56	14	\$1.36
Pitchmen.....							2	(1)		
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments.....	5	.96	6	\$1.48	13	\$1.33	32	1.36	9	1.17
Processing:										
Bottle sorters.....	38	.87	12	.79	16	1.05	110	1.13	27	1.13
Bottle washers.....	38	.87	12	.79	20	1.05	85	1.13	37	1.13
Cellar workers.....	39	.95	5	.89	18	1.07	35	1.29	34	1.24
Cleaners, brewing equipment and tanks.....	10	(1)	3	(1)	4	1.11	45	1.24	37	1.24
Filling- and capping-machine tenders.....	32	(1)	8	.81	8	1.06	80	1.13	28	1.13
Fillers, keg.....	5	(1)	4	.86	2	(1)	7	1.25	6	1.24
Kettle men.....	5	1.05	4	.92	3	(1)	33	1.24	18	1.24
Malt-house men.....			2	(1)	11	1.13	25	1.24	1	(1)
Millers and grinders.....			3	(1)			9	1.24	4	1.24
Pasteurizer tenders.....			7	.80	10	1.05	14	1.13	12	1.14
Still men, beer.....			3	(1)			37	1.24	15	1.18
Inspection and testing:										
Inspectors, barrels and kegs.....			4	(1)			2	(1)	4	1.24
Inspectors, bottles.....	32	(1)					21	1.13	35	1.13
Recording and control: Checkers.....	16	.86			9	1.05	44	1.07	20	.92
Material movement:										
Conveyor men.....			8	(1)			158	1.13	90	1.13
Truck drivers.....	39	.88	4	(1)	16	1.17	141	1.21	119	1.17
Custodial:										
Janitors.....	3	(1)	2	(1)			3	(1)	2	(1)
Watchmen.....	2	(1)					21	.92	28	.80

¹ Number of plants and/or workers too small to justify computation of an average.

REGIONAL VARIATIONS

The weighted average hourly earnings shown for individual city areas reveal substantial variations in occupational earnings from one area to another. Among the maintenance occupations, for instance, the earnings for class A electricians ranged from \$1.23 an hour in Cincinnati to \$1.73 an hour in Detroit; the range in average hourly earnings for class A machinists was from \$1.15 in Louisville to \$1.62 in Chicago and Detroit.

Among the processing occupations, workers classified as kettle men earned average rates ranging from 82 cents an hour in Tampa to \$1.27 in Detroit; 12 of the 19 wage areas for which data were available for this occupation showed average earnings amounting to \$1.00 or more an hour. Generally, workers employed as pasteurizer tenders appeared to be the highest paid of any of the workers studied in the bottling department.

In Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Detroit, the average rates of pay for workers in each occupation studied were considerably higher than the national median for the occupation. Average hourly earnings in most of the occupations studied in Columbus, Cincinnati, Tampa, and Oklahoma City were relatively low in comparison with the national median. On the whole, the lowest average rates were paid to workers in smaller cities.

In an attempt to measure roughly the extent of differences in earnings from one area to another, the averages for all occupations represented in the various establishments were combined into a single weighted average for each of the 20 areas studied. For this purpose, straight-time average hourly earnings for each occupation were weighted in each area by the total number of workers employed in the occupation in all 20 of the wage areas combined. Thus, it was assumed that each occupation had the same relative importance in all areas. The resulting averages are presented below, by area:

	<i>Area averages, all occupa- tions</i>	<i>Percent of max- imum average</i>		<i>Area averages, all occupa- tions</i>	<i>Per- cent of max- imum average</i>
Detroit	\$1.19	100	Cleveland	\$0.94	79
San Francisco	1.19	100	South Bend	.94	79
Los Angeles	1.16	97	Louisville	.90	76
Spokane	1.09	92	New Orleans	.89	75
Chicago	1.05	88	San Antonio	.89	75
Houston-Galveston	1.01	85	Omaha	.88	74
Minneapolis-St. Paul	.98	82	Cincinnati	.86	72
St. Louis	.96	81	Oklahoma City	.85	71
Milwaukee	.95	80	Columbus	.79	66
Baltimore	.95	80	Tampa	.73	61

On the basis of the above averages, it is evident that the level of malt-liquor wages in Detroit and San Francisco exceeds that of any other area covered in the present study. There was an average difference of about 46 cents an hour between earnings in Detroit or San Francisco and earnings in Tampa. It should be noted that these general averages are influenced by factors other than regional differences, such as differences in size of plant and in the composition of the labor force. They do, however, indicate in a general way the relative wage levels in the industry.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to June 1944

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to June 1944.¹ The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged \$46.28 in June 1944—99.6 percent above the average in January 1939, 73.7 percent above January 1941, and 19.0 percent above October 1942. Such factors as longer hours of work, merit increases for individual workers, premium pay for overtime worked, changing composition of the labor force within plants, shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 101.8 cents in June 1944—61.1 percent above the average in January 1939, 49.0 percent above January 1941, and 14.0 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The effect of extra pay for work on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in June 1944 was 94.4 cents per hour; this was 51.5 percent higher than in January 1939, 42.2 percent above January 1941, and 12.5 percent above October 1942.

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10 to 12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time hourly earnings of factory workers would have averaged 86.7 cents in June 1944, or 39.2 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 33.8 percent above January 1941, and 10.9 percent above October 1942. Between May 1944 and June 1944 the rise in straight-time hourly earnings, after eliminating the influence of shifting employment, amounted to two-tenths of 1 percent. Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates, because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.

¹ Compare Trends in Factory Wages, 1939-43, Monthly Labor Review, November 1943 (pp. 869-884) especially table 4 (p. 879). For detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, June 1944, table 6 (p. 639), of this issue.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to June 1944

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings ¹			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1940 employment ²		
	All manufacturing (1)	Durable goods (2)	Non-durable goods (3)	All manufacturing (4)	Durable goods (5)	Non-durable goods (6)	All manufacturing (7)	Durable goods (8)	Non-durable goods (9)	All manufacturing (10)	Durable goods (11)	Non-durable goods (12)
1939: Jan.	\$23.19	\$25.33	\$21.57	\$0.632	\$0.896	\$0.583	\$0.623	\$0.888	\$0.574	\$0.623	\$0.888	\$0.571
1940: Jan.	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.644	.703	.589	.635	.697	.585
1941: Jan.	26.64	30.48	22.76	.653	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601	.648	.711	.602
1942: Jan.	32.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.762	.835	.670	.729	.810	.667
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.809	.885	.701	.759	.846	.705
Oct.	38.89	45.31	30.66	.903	.990	.751	.839	.919	.723	.782	.866	.715
1943: Jan.	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.859	.941	.733	.794	.866	.725
Apr.	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.878	.967	.751	.808	.877	.741
July	42.76	49.76	34.01	.968	1.060	.806	.896	.981	.760	.823	.895	.750
Oct.	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.080	.824	.916	.997	.781	.836	.905	.755
Dec.	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.927	1.011	.788	.846	.912	.755
1944: Jan.	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.931	1.013	.798	.850	.915	.760
Apr.	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.018	1.110	.850	.942	1.023	.806	.862	.916	.762
May ²	46.08	51.90	37.08	1.017	1.112	.858	.944	1.025	.810	.865	.916	.765
June ²	46.28	52.16	37.36	1.018	1.113	.862	.944	1.024	.813	.867	.919	.768

¹ Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.² Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1940.³ Preliminary.

Sliding-Scale Adjustment of Wages in Great Britain, 1944¹

SLIDING-SCALE arrangements for wage-rate adjustments are in operation in a number of important industries in Great Britain. The number of persons covered by cost-of-living sliding scales has increased two-thirds during the war, while the use of selling-price sliding scales has been greatly reduced.

Cost-of-living sliding scales.—Approximately 2½ million British workers, at the time of the Ministry of Labor's recent survey,² were subject to periodic adjustment of wages according to changes in the cost-of-living index. This method of regulating wages was introduced in certain industries toward the end of the last war, and was gradually extended. Coverage amounted to about 3 million persons in 1922, but had dropped to 1½ million by 1939. Several important industries have been brought under the system during the second World War. Industries and services in which cost-of-living sliding-scale arrangements are known to be in operation are mining and quarrying; pottery, glass, etc.; iron and steel and other metals; textiles; clothing; food, drink, and tobacco; woodworking; building and allied industries; and miscellaneous other industries and services. Railway service, electrical-cable manufacture, and the nontrading services of some local authorities are among the few industries and services in which sliding scales in operation at the beginning of the war have been suspended.

Changes in the rates are made under collective agreements providing for the automatic adjustment of wage rates, on a prearranged basis,

¹ Data are from Great Britain, Ministry of Labor Gazette (London), June 1944.

in accordance with movements in the average level of working-class cost of living, as indicated by the official Ministry of Labor index. The method of adjustment varies in the different agreements. The number of points of movement in the cost-of-living index figures that constitutes a "step" in the sliding scale ranges from 1 in some industries to 15 in others. In many cases the index must move a certain number of points away from a standard figure before adjustment can take place. The amount of the change in wage rates varies with the size given the "steps." With only a few exceptions, the amount of change in wage rates corresponding with a specified variation in the index figure is uniform at all points in the scale. A flat-rate amount is usually specified, which is generally the same for all occupational classes and differs only among men, women, and juveniles. With regard to the length of time between adjustments, the schemes provide either for changes in wage rates whenever the index has moved the necessary number of points or for changes only at specified intervals, if warranted by a movement in the index figure. Under the former method, wages may fluctuate every month; wages under the second system usually are adjusted quarterly. As a result of the varying methods used, a given change in the cost-of-living index does not have an immediate, or the same, effect on wage rates in all the industries in which agreements operate. It may be sufficient to cause a change in wages in some cases and not in others; it may result in an immediate rise or fall in wage rates; or the index may have to remain at its new level for a period of time before the wage variation comes into effect.

Increases in wage rates during the war in the industries covered by these arrangements have not been restricted to those taking effect under the cost-of-living sliding-scale agreements. The great majority of the 2½ million workers concerned have received additional increases in wage rates, or war bonuses, either by direct agreement between employers' and workers' organizations or by arbitrators' awards.

Selling-price sliding scales.—Before the present war, collective agreements in some industries provided for the periodic adjustment of wages to correspond with variations in the selling prices of certain commodities. Between March and June of 1940, nearly all the agreements were suspended for the duration of the war, and most of them have been replaced by cost-of-living sliding-scale agreements. By June of 1944, only two price scales, as far as was known, continued to operate. Both were in the coke and byproducts manufacture industry, and in both cases cost-of-living sliding-scale adjustments were also in operation.

The selling-price sliding-scale agreements usually provided that certain standard wage rates should be taken as corresponding to a specified selling price, and, for each variation of a prescribed amount above or below the price, a percentage was added to or deducted from the standard wage rates. Prices used were generally those of commodities that were part of the actual output of the industry, but in some cases the prices were for articles manufactured from the output of the workers concerned. In a few instances, periodic adjustments were made in wage rates to correspond with variations in the proceeds of the industry in each district.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Living in Large Cities, July 1944

HIGHER prices for food, particularly eggs and fresh fruits and vegetables, accounted for most of the 0.6-percent rise in retail prices of living essentials during the month ending July 15. Increases in other elements of the family budget were small.

During the past year, average prices of family living essentials have risen by 1.8 percent, compared to advances of 6 percent and 11 percent in the years ending July 1943 and July 1942. The advance during the year has been primarily in prices of clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous services. Food prices as a whole are slightly lower than they were in July 1943.

The 1.3-percent increase in food prices during the month was primarily due to egg prices, which rose 15 percent to an average of almost 53 cents per dozen, after declining rapidly during the spring. There was a net rise of 2 percent in July in prices of the fresh fruits and vegetables included in the Bureau's index, reflecting higher prices for shippers established by OPA on some of this season's crops. The average price of 13.6 cents per pound for apples represented an increase of 12 percent over June, when there is usually a decline, and oranges advanced more than 5 percent. Higher prices were reported for potatoes, sweetpotatoes, spinach, and onions in July, but there were large decreases for cabbage, lettuce, and green beans. A counter-seasonal decline of 0.4 percent was reported for meats, and most cuts were lower in price than in June. In comparison with July 1943, prices of meats, eggs, and fruits and vegetables as a group were lower, and cereals and bakery products were slightly higher.

Except for foodstuffs, average prices paid by moderate-income city families for goods and services showed only occasional small increases between mid-June and mid-July. There were scattered price advances for men's work shirts and summer-weight suits, and for women's wash frocks and rayon underwear. In the housefurnishings group, small increases were reported for prices of cook stoves and bedroom suites in a few cities.

Scattered advances in prices charged for beauty-shop services, daily newspapers, and laundry work caused an 0.1-percent rise in the cost of miscellaneous goods and services. Average fuel prices rose 0.2 percent, as a result of some increases in bituminous-coal prices. Rents were not surveyed in July.

In connection with the figures given in the following tables it should be borne in mind that the Bureau of Labor Statistics index indicates average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents, and services bought by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. The items covered represented 70 percent of the expenditures of families who had incomes ranging from \$1,250 to \$2,000 in 1934-36.

The index does not show the full wartime effect on the cost of living of such factors as lowered quality, disappearance of low-priced goods, and forced changes in housing and eating away from home.

It does not measure changes in total "living costs"—that is, in the total amount families spend for living. Income taxes and bond subscriptions are not included.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, July 15, 1944, and Earlier Dates

Date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100.0) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House- furnishings	Miscel- laneous
Mar. August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
Mar. January 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
Mar. May 15.....	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
Sept. September 15.....	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
Mar. July 15.....	123.9	139.0	129.1	108.0	107.6	125.6	116.3
Mar. June 15.....	125.4	135.7	138.0	108.1	109.6	138.4	121.7
July 15.....	126.1	137.4	138.2	(?)	109.8	138.5	121.8

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Rents surveyed at quarterly intervals: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods

Date	All items	Food	Cloth- ing	Rent ²	Fuel, electric- ity, and ice	House- furnishings	Mis- cel- laneous
June 15, 1944, to July 15, 1944.....	+0.6	+1.3	+0.1	(?)	+0.2	+0.1	+0.1
July 15, 1943, to July 15, 1944.....	+1.8	-1.2	+7.0	+0.1	+2.0	+10.3	+4.9
Sept. 15, 1942, to July 15, 1944.....	+7.0	+8.5	+9.9	+1	+3.4	+12.1	+9.3
May 15, 1942, to July 15, 1944.....	+8.7	+13.0	+0.5	-1.6	+4.7	+13.3	+9.8
Jan. 15, 1941, to July 15, 1944.....	+25.1	+40.5	+37.2	+3.0	+8.9	+38.4	+19.5
Aug. 15, 1939, to July 15, 1944.....	+27.9	+47.0	+37.8	+3.6	+12.6	+37.7	+21.3

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Changes through June 15, 1944.

³ Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities

City	July 15, 1943, to July 15, 1944	Aug. 15, 1939, to July 15, 1944	Jan. 1, 1941, to July 15, 1944	May 15, 1942, to July 15, 1944	Sept. 15, 1942, to July 15, 1944
	July 15, 1944	July 15, 1944	July 15, 1944	July 15, 1944	July 15, 1944
Average: Large cities	+1.8	+27.9	+25.1	+2.7	+2.9
New England: Boston	+1.7	+20.1	+23.5	+7.9	+1.1
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+2	+29.4	+24.1	+5.0	+0.9
New York	+2.2	+27.7	+25.1	+11.6	+1.7
Philadelphia	+1.9	+27.7	+25.9	+8.9	+0.8
Pittsburgh	+2.3	+28.9	+25.3	+9.5	+2.3
East North Central:					
Chicago	+2.9	+27.8	+24.6	+8.2	+1.5
Cincinnati	+2.4	+26.5	+27.5	+9.5	+1.6
Cleveland	+1.9	+30.3	+27.7	+9.7	+0.9
Detroit	+1.4	+29.7	+26.5	+7.6	+1.3
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+2.8	+26.0	+26.2	+8.9	+1.3
Minneapolis	+1.7	+23.4	+20.8	+6.1	+1.3
St. Louis	+1.9	+27.9	+25.3	+8.6	+1.6
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	+1.8	+30.0	+27.4	+8.5	+2.1
Savannah	+1.8	+35.6	+32.8	+11.4	+1.3
Washington, D. C.	+1.9	+26.1	+24.4	+8.4	+1.1
East South Central: Birmingham	+3.2	+22.2	+28.1	+9.7	+0.6
West South Central: Houston	+1.7	+23.5	+22.0	+7.1	+1.4
Mountain: Denver	+2.6	+27.7	+25.9	+8.9	+1.1
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+1.0	+25.9	+23.4	+7.1	+0.9
San Francisco	+3.2	+30.2	+27.0	+9.9	+1.1
Seattle	+2.6	+29.1	+26.8	+8.8	+1.1

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living, June 15—July 15, 1944, by Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electric- ity, and ice	House- furnishings	Mis- govern- ment
Average: Large cities	+0.6	+1.3	+0.1	+0.2	+0.1	+0.1
New England: Boston	.5	+1.2	.1	0	.1	0
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	.2	.3	.1	0	0	0
New York	+4	+1.0	.1	.1	0	+2
Philadelphia	+1	+1.2	.2	0	0	-1
Pittsburgh	+2	.7	0	0	.2	0
East North Central:						
Chicago	+1.0	+2.4	.1	0	0	+1
Cincinnati	+3	+6	.4	0	.2	+1
Cleveland	+1.1	+2.3	.1	0	0	+1
Detroit	+0.9	+2.6	.2	-.1	.1	-1
West North Central:						
Kansas City	+1.0	+1.8	-.1	0	0	+1
Minneapolis	+1.7	+1.8	0	0	0	+1
St. Louis	+1.0	+2.3	.1	0	0	+1
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	.6	+1.3	.2	0	.3	+2
Savannah	+1.7	+1.8	0	0	0	+2
Washington, D. C.	-1	-.3	.1	0	0	-1
East South Central: Birmingham	+5	+1.1	.1	0	0	+1
West South Central: Houston	+6	+1.5	0	0	.5	+1
Mountain: Denver	+1.0	+2.3	.4	0	0	0
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	-2	-.5	.1	0	0	0
San Francisco	+1	-.1	.2	0	0	+1
Seattle	+5	+1.1	.3	.3	0	+1

¹ Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers.

² Rents surveyed at quarterly dates: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

³ Based on prices for 56 cities collected on Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.

⁴ Based on data for 21 cities.

⁵ Based on data for 34 cities.

by Cities

15	Sept. 15,
10	1943 to
July 15,	1944
4	

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1944		1943	1942	1941	1939
	July 18 ³	June 13	July 13	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods.....	137.4	135.7	139.0	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	108.6	108.4	107.8	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats.....	129.3	129.8	130.9	130.6	101.1	96.7
Beef and veal.....	118.7	118.8	120.2	126.0	109.4	96.8
Pork.....	112.1	112.0	115.3	124.0	86.1	85.0
Lamb.....	135.0	134.8	136.5	133.7	98.7	98.3
Chickens.....	151.4	154.1	147.1	133.7	97.2	96.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	107.5	106.7	108.3	108.2	118.7	98.6
Dairy products.....	133.6	135.5	133.4	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs.....	148.9	129.1	153.6	155.2	97.4	93.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	176.9	174.0	180.5	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh.....	188.3	184.6	192.9	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned.....	129.0	129.2	130.5	123.8	91.6	92.6
Dried.....	164.6	164.1	159.0	143.4	99.6	96.2
Beverages.....	124.3	124.3	124.5	123.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils.....	122.9	123.1	126.5	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets.....	126.6	126.5	126.4	127.0	95.3	92.6

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.³ Preliminary.TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ July 1944 Compared with Earlier Months

Article	1944		1943	1941	1939
	July 18 ²	June 13	July 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:					
Cereals:					
Flour, wheat.....	10 pounds	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
Flour, wheat.....	10 pounds	64.8	64.9	61.4	55.8
Macaroni.....	pound	15.7	15.7	15.6	14.0
Wheat cereal ³	28 ounces	23.0	23.2	23.4	23.5
Corn flakes.....	.8 ounces	6.6	6.5	6.6	7.0
Corn meal.....	pound	6.3	6.2	5.7	4.2
Rice ³	do	12.8	12.9	12.6	7.9
Rolled oats.....	do	9.8	9.4	8.6	7.1
Flour, pancake ³	20 ounces	12.1	12.1	10.5	(9)
Bakery products:					
Bread, white.....	pound	8.8	8.8	8.9	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....	do	9.7	9.7	9.8	8.8
Bread, rye.....	do	9.9	9.9	10.1	9.0
Vanilla cookies.....	do	28.4	28.7	28.5	25.1
Soda crackers.....	do	18.9	18.9	18.0	15.0
Meats:					
Beef:					
Round steak.....	do	41.6	41.6	42.3	38.6
Rib roast.....	do	33.4	33.7	34.1	31.5
Chuck roast.....	do	28.8	28.9	29.1	25.2
Stew meat ³	do	31.3	31.5	(9)	(9)
Liver.....	do	37.3	37.3	36.8	(9)
Hamburger.....	do	27.9	28.0	28.7	(9)
Veal:					
Cutlets.....	do	45.1	45.1	46.3	45.2
Roast, boned and rolled.....	do	35.0	35.0	35.5	(9)
Pork:					
Chops.....	do	37.3	37.3	38.3	29.1
Bacon, sliced.....	do	41.1	41.2	42.7	30.1
Ham, sliced.....	do	50.9	51.1	53.2	45.1
Ham, whole.....	do	35.5	35.6	36.3	26.2
Salt pork.....	do	22.2	22.4	23.1	16.7
Liver ³	do	22.0	22.0	22.6	(9)
Sausage ³	do	38.0	38.2	38.5	(9)
Bologna, big ³	do	34.1	34.2	34.6	(9)
Lamb:					
Leg.....	do	40.1	40.1	40.5	27.8
Rib chops.....	do	45.4	45.3	46.5	35.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ July 1944
Compared with Earlier Months—Continued

Article	1944		1943		1941		1939	
	July 18 ²	June 13	July 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15			
Mats—Continued.								
Poultry: Roasting chickens.....	pound	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
Fish:								
Fish (fresh, frozen).....	do.	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Salmon, pink.....	16-oz. can	23.7	23.7	23.0	15.7	12.8		
Salmon, red ³	do.	41.9	42.3	41.1	26.4	23.1		
Dairy products:								
Butter.....	pound	50.0	49.9	50.4	38.0	30.7		
Cheese.....	do.	36.1	36.0	38.1	27.0	24.7		
Milk, fresh (delivered).....	quart	15.6	15.6	15.5	13.0	12.0		
Milk, fresh (store).....	do.	14.5	14.5	14.4	11.9	11.0		
Milk, evaporated.....	14½ oz. can	10.0	10.0	10.1	7.1	6.7		
Eggs: Eggs, fresh.....	dozen	52.7	45.7	54.2	34.9	32.0		
Fruits and vegetables:								
Fresh fruits:								
Apples.....	pound	13.6	12.1	13.6	5.2	4.4		
Bananas.....	do.	11.2	11.3	11.9	6.6	6.1		
Oranges.....	dozen	50.8	48.2	48.0	27.3	31.5		
Grapefruit ⁴	each	10.1	9.2	10.2	(7)	(7)		
Fresh vegetables:								
Beans, green.....	pound	13.4	16.6	16.1	14.0	7.2		
Cabbage.....	do	4.8	5.4	6.5	3.4	3.9		
Carrots.....	bunch	8.6	8.5	8.3	6.0	4.6		
Lettuce.....	head	10.2	11.5	13.5	8.4	8.4		
Onions.....	pound	7.2	6.5	8.8	3.6	3.6		
Potatoes.....	15 pounds	79.5	78.7	71.5	29.2	34.4		
Spinach.....	pound	10.3	9.7	14.5	7.3	7.8		
Sweetpotatoes.....	do	13.5	12.7	17.2	5.0	5.5		
Beets ⁵	bunch	7.5	10.7	8.5	(7)	(7)		
Canned fruits:								
Peaches.....	No. 2½ can	27.7	27.5	26.9	16.5	17.1		
Pineapple.....	do	27.3	27.5	28.0	20.9	21.0		
Grapefruit juice.....	No. 2 can	14.4	14.4	14.3	(7)	(7)		
Beans, green.....	do	13.1	13.0	14.6	10.0	10.0		
Corn.....	do	14.4	14.4	14.0	10.7	10.4		
Peas.....	do	13.1	13.1	14.9	13.2	13.6		
Tomatoes.....	do	11.9	11.9	12.6	8.4	8.6		
Soup, vegetable ⁶	11-oz. can	13.4	13.4	13.1	(7)	(7)		
Dried fruits: Prunes.....	pound	17.1	17.1	10.7	9.6	8.8		
Dried vegetables:								
Navy beans.....	do	10.7	10.7	10.0	6.5	5.8		
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle ⁷	ounce	3.7	3.7	3.7	(7)	(7)		
Beverages:								
Coffee.....	pound	30.0	30.0	30.0	20.7	22.3		
Tea.....	½ pound	23.9	23.9	21.9	17.6	17.2		
Cocoa ⁸	½ pound	10.2	10.2	9.0	9.1	8.6		
Butter and oils:								
Lard.....	pound	18.6	18.7	19.0	9.3	9.9		
Shortening other than lard—								
In cartons.....	do	20.2	20.2	19.9	11.3	11.7		
In other containers.....	do	24.7	24.7	24.8	18.3	20.2		
Balldressing.....	pint	26.6	25.6	25.2	20.1	(7)		
Cream margarine.....	pound	24.2	24.1	23.7	15.6	16.5		
Peanut butter.....	do	28.4	28.4	33.1	17.9	17.9		
Oil, cooking or sauced ⁹	pint	30.6	30.1	30.3	(7)	(7)		
Sugar and sweets:								
Sugar.....	pound	6.8	6.8	6.8	5.1	5.2		
Corn syrup.....	24 ounces	15.8	15.8	15.7	13.6	13.7		
Molasses ¹⁰	18 ounces	15.8	15.7	15.7	13.4	13.6		
Apple butter ¹¹	16 ounces	12.7	13.2	13.0	(7)	(7)		

(1) Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.

(2) Preliminary.

(3) Not included in index.

(4) First priced, February 1943.

(5) Not priced.

(6) Composite price not computed.

(7) First priced, October 1941.

(8) Revised.

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TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Costs of All Foods, by Cities,¹ on Specified Dates
[1935-39 = 100]

City	1944		1943	1941	1939
	July 18 ²	June 13	July 13	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States.....	137.4	135.7	139.0	97.8	91.1
New England:					
Boston.....	131.9	130.4	132.5	98.2	91.1
Bridgeport.....	135.5	131.4	139.1	96.5	91.2
Fall River.....	132.9	129.2	135.6	97.5	91.4
Manchester.....	135.3	130.9	136.6	96.6	91.9
New Haven.....	135.3	132.6	138.2	95.7	91.7
Portland, Maine.....	135.1	131.1	136.1	95.2	91.9
Providence.....	135.5	133.4	135.8	96.3	91.7
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo.....	135.0	134.6	140.5	100.2	94.5
Newark.....	139.2	137.7	141.2	98.8	91.6
New York.....	138.1	136.8	140.5	99.5	91.8
Philadelphia.....	134.8	134.5	135.8	95.0	91.0
Pittsburgh.....	136.7	135.8	138.9	98.0	91.1
Rochester.....	133.8	131.3	134.8	99.9	92.3
Scranton.....	135.6	125.9	139.6	97.5	91.1
East North Central:					
Chicago.....	138.6	135.4	137.1	98.2	91.1
Cincinnati.....	139.2	138.4	137.9	98.5	91.4
Cleveland.....	144.6	141.3	145.0	98.2	91.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	129.2	127.1	130.8	98.4	91.1
Detroit.....	136.5	132.0	138.8	97.9	90.6
Indianapolis.....	134.8	132.6	137.0	98.2	91.7
Milwaukee.....	137.4	135.5	136.2	98.9	91.1
Peoria.....	140.4	138.2	143.2	99.0	91.4
Springfield, Ill.....	144.3	140.9	144.2	98.2	91.1
West North Central:					
Cedar Rapids ³	140.5	137.3	139.6	98.9	91.1
Kansas City.....	132.5	130.5	132.0	92.4	91.3
Minneapolis.....	131.8	129.0	131.3	98.6	91.8
Omaha.....	130.4	131.1	133.3	97.9	91.3
St. Louis.....	141.9	138.7	141.6	98.2	91.8
St. Paul.....	129.6	128.1	131.2	98.6	91.3
Wichita ⁴	148.4	146.2	146.7	97.3	
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta.....	138.1	135.2	141.5	94.8	91.1
Baltimore.....	143.1	141.2	146.3	97.9	94.7
Charleston, S. C.....	133.0	130.6	136.4	98.9	91.1
Jacksonville.....	144.8	142.9	152.5	98.8	91.8
Norfolk ⁴	143.2	142.0	150.4	98.8	91.6
Richmond.....	134.4	134.0	136.9	98.7	92.2
Savannah.....	132.9	150.2	153.0	100.5	98.7
Washington, D. C.....	134.9	135.3	140.1	97.7	94.1
Winston-Salem ⁴	136.0	135.1	136.5	93.7	91.1
East South Central:					
Birmingham.....	141.4	139.8	140.9	94.9	91.7
Jackson ⁴	138.5	139.3	143.1	103.2	
Knoxville ⁴	157.3	154.1	155.8	97.1	
Louisville.....	133.4	132.9	134.9	95.6	91.1
Memphis.....	146.1	144.7	147.7	94.2	91.1
Mobile.....	144.4	142.1	146.6	97.9	91.1
West South Central:					
Dallas.....	132.3	130.8	135.5	92.8	91.1
Houston.....	137.0	135.0	137.4	102.6	91.1
Little Rock.....	135.8	133.8	135.2	95.6	91.1
New Orleans.....	149.6	146.9	153.8	101.9	91.1
Mountain:					
Butte.....	134.8	132.8	138.6	98.7	91.1
Denver.....	140.6	137.5	138.4	94.3	91.1
Salt Lake City.....	141.1	139.5	142.2	97.5	91.1
Pacific:					
Los Angeles.....	138.5	139.2	142.4	101.8	91.1
Portland, Oreg.....	146.2	144.4	145.7	101.7	91.1
San Francisco.....	142.4	142.5	140.0	99.6	91.1
Seattle.....	141.9	140.4	140.9	101.0	91.1

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city (54 foods prior to March 1943), weighted to represent total purchases of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with those of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparison.

² Preliminary.

³ June 1940=100.

⁴ Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to July 1944
[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
Aug. 15							
1927	29.9	1927	122.3	1941	105.5	1945—Con.	
	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9	October	128.2
	80.0	1929	123.5	1943	138.0	November	137.3
	90.8	1930	126.0			December	137.1
	116.9	1931	103.9	1943			
	134.4	1932	86.5	January	133.0	1944	
	149.8	1933	84.1	February	133.6	January	136.1
	168.8	1934	93.7	March	137.4	February	134.5
	128.3	1935	104.4	April	140.6	March	134.1
	119.9	1936	101.3	May	148.0	April	134.6
	124.0	1937	105.3	June	141.9	May	135.5
	122.8	1938	97.8	July	139.0	June	135.7
	132.9	1939	95.2	August	137.2	July	137.4
	137.4	1940	96.6	September	137.4		

¹Data based on 51 cities combined, prior to March 1943.

Relation of Price Subsidy to Cost-of-Living and Retail-Price Indexes in Great Britain¹

THE level at which cost of living is stabilized in Great Britain is to be raised 5 percent, according to a statement by the Chancellor of the Exchequer on April 25, 1944. Heavy subsidies, amounting to £140 million in 1941 and £190 million in 1943, kept the rise in cost of living down to 1 percent between 1941 and early 1944. In 1941, the official Ministry of Labor cost-of-living index had risen 28 percent above the pre-war level; at the time of the Chancellor's speech, it stood at 29 percent. It is estimated that, without subsidies, the increase above the pre-war level would have reached about 50 percent in 1944. Compared with September 1939, wage rates rose 21 to 22 percent by 1941, and 40 percent by early 1944. The 1941-44 increase was approximately 15 percent. Earnings rose considerably more. Accordingly, the Government decided that the cost of living is to be permitted to range from 30 to 35 percent above pre-war level instead of the 25 to 30 percent established in 1941. The Financial Secretary to the Treasury indicated that the Government would not reduce the present subsidies, but would not increase them sufficiently to prevent a cost-of-living rise. It was stated that the new policy might not come into operation for some time.

In discussing the rise, the Chancellor of the Exchequer stated that the purpose of the stabilization policy would be lost if subsidies were used to keep the cost of living rigid regardless of the existing level of costs and wages. Higher domestic costs of production and an advance in the price of imports, in his opinion, justified an increase in the cost-of-living index.

Labour members in the House of Commons opposed the increase. The Labor Research Department² considered it dangerous for the Government to adopt a deliberate policy of increasing living costs, especially as it was held that a 5-percent rise in the official cost-of-living index compiled by the Ministry of Labor might result in a much larger

¹Data from Great Britain, Parliamentary Debates (London), April 25, 1944; An Analysis of the Sources of the Finance and Estimates of the National Income and Expenditure in the Years 1938 to 1943 (Treasury, London, April 1944); report (No. 238) by E. M. Hodgkinson, United States Embassy, London, May 20, 1944; Labor Research (Labor Research Department, London), June 1944; and Labor (Official Organ of the Trades Union Congress, London), May 1944.

²A joint research agency established by the Trades Union Congress and the Labor Party.

advance in the actual price level. This view was based on the fact that the index "is calculated for a very narrow range of goods (almost entirely those which are rationed and price-controlled) and which has been artificially 'pegged' by the concentration of subsidies on the items which happen to bulk particularly large in the index." The index of the general price level compiled by the Treasury in connection with its study of national income and expenditures, 1938-43, was cited as a much more reliable guide to the cost of living than the official index of the Ministry of Labor. Unlike the cost-of-living index, the Treasury's general price index "covers the expenditure of all classes of the community and includes luxuries as well as necessities." Representatives of labor stated that the luxuries referred to "are goods which workers buy and which are grossly underrepresented in the [official] cost-of-living index."

Wartime changes in prices, cost of living, wage rates, earnings, and consumption are shown for the years 1939-43 in the accompanying table, as index numbers based on the 1938 level as 100. Between the base period and 1943, the official (Ministry of Labor) cost-of-living index rose 28 percent, as compared with a 41-percent advance in the Treasury index of retail prices (including the cost of subsidies and excluding indirect taxation) and with a 55-percent advance in the Treasury index adjusted to allow for indirect taxes (including indirect taxation and excluding the cost of subsidies).³

Index Numbers of Prices, Cost of Living, Wage Rates, Earnings, and Consumption, in Great Britain, 1939-43

Item	Index numbers (1938=100)				
	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
Ministry of Labor cost-of-living index.....	101	118	128	128	136
Treasury index of retail prices, including the cost of subsidies and excluding indirect taxation.....	102	118	131	138	141
Treasury index of retail prices, adjusted to include indirect taxation and exclude cost of subsidies.....	103	120	137	147	155
Wage rates index (Bowley).....	101.6	112	122	130	137
Hourly earnings index ¹	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)
Weekly earnings index ²	(?)	120.9	142.4	150.9	170.7
Index of volume of physical consumption.....	100	88	82	81	79

¹ Base period is October 1938; where given, figures are returns for July of each year.

² Figures not available.

In commenting on the proposed rise in cost of living, the Trades Union Congress also called attention to the fact that in certain industries—notably building, mining, steel, and textiles—wage rates are tied to the cost of living, and must increase automatically if prices rise. "What effect this may have on agreements reached, in some cases, only after long and complicated negotiations, is a factor which ought not by any means to be ignored." The T. U. C. also stated that for many workers basic wage rates have not risen faster than the cost of living and a cost-of-living rise might reduce such persons below the subsistence level. In any case, a rise in the cost of living certainly would lead to a renewed movement for increased wages, in the opinion of the T. U. C.

¹ The Treasury index 141 is designated as "Retail prices, excluding specific indirect taxes and increased by subsidies." The index was reworked in Labor Research to include "indirect taxation and effect of subsidies." Apparently the resultant figure of 155 excludes the cost of subsidies, whereas the Treasury retail-price index includes it. The above discussion is based on this interpretation. Probably Labor Research obtained the adjusted index of 155 by dividing 122, the index of "Personal expenditure on consumption at market prices, including indirect taxes and excluding subsidies" by 79, "Personal expenditure on consumption in terms of constant prices" (the index of volume of physical consumption).

Wholesale Prices

Prices in the Second Quarter of 1944¹

Summary

THE second quarter of 1944 brought no marked change in the general level of prices. There was a small price advance in the primary markets, of one-half of 1 percent, as farm prices and a few industrial goods went up; and a rise of 1½ percent in prices paid by consumers for living essentials, as food moved seasonally higher and continued scarcity of low-priced clothing and housefurnishings forced buying into higher-priced lines.

Since the "hold-the-line" order of April 1943, there has been no wide variation in the general price level, either in primary markets or at retail for consumer goods. In June 1944, prices averaged one-half of 1 percent lower than in June 1943, both in primary markets and at retail for consumers' living essentials. Over the 12-month period ending in June 1944, prices of foods and farm products declined about 4 percent. These reductions, which occurred principally in the spring and summer of 1943, were attributable to improved supplies, the extension of OPA controls, and the subsidy-rollback program. These declines in agricultural prices offset, in the general price level, advances of a number of industrial materials and of consumer goods such as clothing.

General stability such as this is to be expected in an economy where price control prevents great price increases, and rationing and priorities govern the distribution of goods that are limited in supply. The tremendous producing capacity of the United States, together with these control measures, has made it possible to hold the general level of prices within moderate limits even under great wartime pressures.

Currently, the small price changes which occur are significant because they often indicate trends of importance. This was the case in the second quarter of 1944. Price changes outside the agricultural field, although scattered, are important because they foreshadow developments which may become more general in the coming months.

In industrial markets, for example, diverse trends in the program of war production were a major factor in effecting price changes. Markets for some basic industrial products weakened, as available supplies exceeded military and other requirements. This is illustrated by quicksilver, some of the drugs and chemicals, and sheepskins. The market for scrap was becoming increasingly selective, especially for certain kinds of aluminum and steel scrap now in large

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Prices and Cost of Living Branch, by Melville J. Ulmer, from reports by the Bureau's commodity specialists and field representatives.

supply. Such price declines may later occur in other markets as requirements for other war matériel are met.

For other kinds of goods, as for example cement, declining demand has necessitated the granting of higher prices in order to meet higher costs on the greatly reduced volume of business. This, too, is a type of development which may be expected in other lines as war demands slacken and give way to smaller peacetime volume.

During the quarter, as in earlier months, short supplies caused in general by shortages of labor have been a moving factor in pushing prices up. This has been true of lumber, wood pulp, and paper products, on which higher prices have been permitted by OPA to cover higher wages and other costs, in order to induce greater production. There is now considerable pressure to raise ceilings for still other goods, such as steel and machinery.

Another force making for higher prices during the quarter was the return of consumer goods of a pre-war type to the market at substantially higher cost levels than those which prevailed in 1941 and 1942 before war needs for basic materials stopped production. Spring-filled living-room furniture is an illustration. Pricing problems of this kind will become more numerous with each passing month as such materials are released for civilian production.

Finally, the continued price rise for clothing and certain kinds of housefurnishings during the quarter emphasized again the shortage of low-priced merchandise, and the fact that consumers are often forced to buy higher-priced goods in order to obtain any supply at all. Shortages of low-priced cotton clothing and certain household textiles were widely reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the course of its retail price surveys in June. Costs of services, most of which are not under control, continued to rise.

The principal changes in prices and living costs from March to June are summarized in the following tabulation:

	Percent of change		
	Mar. 1944 to June 1944	June 1943 to July 1944	Aug. 1939 to June 1944
Wholesale prices:			
All commodities	+0.5	+0.5	+39.1
Farm products	+1.1	-1.0	+104.9
Foods	+1.8	-2.8	+58.5
All other commodities	+0.4	+1.8	+28.0
Cost of living	+1.3	+0.5	+27.2

Industrial Commodity Markets

In the second quarter of 1944, as in the previous 2 years, the majority of prices in industrial markets were relatively stable under price control. The general level of prices for commodities other than farm products and foods rose slightly, by 0.4 percent. The advance represented higher prices for new goods coming into the markets and also upward adjustments in price ceilings for such products as pipe and pulp and lumber, for which wages and other costs have advanced and prices have been raised to induce larger production. The decline in industrial prices reflect either reduced military demand or great

improved supply situations. Price changes for the principal groups of industrial products are shown below.

	Percent of change—					
	Mar. 1944 to June 1944		June 1944 to June 1944		Aug. 1939 to June 1944	
Fuel and lighting	+0.4	+2.8	+14.7			
Metals and metal products	0	-0.1	+11.3			
Building materials	+1.5	+4.8	+29.4			
Chemicals and allied products	+4.8	+5.2	+41.8			
Miscellaneous commodities	0	+1.9	+27.6			

METALS AND METAL PRODUCTS

The supply situation continued to improve for most metals in the second quarter of 1944, although shortages were still more common than surpluses, and there was continued pressure to raise ceilings for steel and machinery. The general improvement in supply was reflected in the latest Material Substitution and Supply List issued by the WPB. This list classified none of the basic materials as "most critical" in April 1944, as against 13 metals in this category in April 1943. For a number of these products, military demand was reduced.

Although metal prices were generally stable, and the Bureau's price index for metals and metal products as a group remained unchanged, there were several significant price adjustments. A 25-percent drop in quicksilver prices from March to June continued a decline that had been in progress since the Government announced, late in 1943, that its stockpile was sufficient to last 2 years at the current rate of consumption. The aluminum-scrap market was selective and generally weak. Prices of such scrap as borings and turnings declined, but those of clippings rose.

On the other hand, there were a few price advances reflecting persistent shortages, arising out of difficulties in obtaining labor. Thus, an OPA order permitted the addition of overtime labor costs to the ceiling prices of malleable-iron castings, in a measure designed to counteract the scarcity of foundry labor. Maximum prices of brass and bronze alloy castings were raised from 1 to 1½ cents per pound.

CHEMICALS AND ALLIED PRODUCTS

For chemicals and drugs, there was perceptible price weakening in a number of markets, as a result of improved supplies for several products which were formerly extremely scarce. Increased stocks of lard brought price reductions for stearic and oleic acids. Tank-car prices of formaldehyde were reduced from a range of 4.00 to 5.15 cents per pound to one of 3.60 to 4.90 cents. Prices of such synthetic resins as "lucite" and "plexiglas" were reduced by amounts ranging up to 11 percent. Drug prices also came down, mercurials by about 10 percent and sulfathiazole by 17 percent. Penicillin and cod-liver oil were also lower. Certain crude drugs (such as bloodroot), the prices of which had previously skyrocketed, were reduced more than 30 percent during the quarter.

Supplies of many products in this group, such as sulfuric acid and toluol, however, remained short during the quarter and for a few—including barium chloride, pyrethrum and rotenone—there were price increases. The largest advance during the quarter resulted from the substantial increase in the excise tax on ethyl alcohol.

PAPER AND PULP

With shortages persisting in many branches of the industry, price advances were allowed by the OPA during the second quarter of 1944 for several paper and pulp products in order to encourage production. None of the advances, however, was large enough to affect the general level of paper and pulp prices, which remained unchanged during the quarter at a point about 34 percent above the level prevailing in the summer of 1939. Upward adjustments in maximum prices, ranging from 50 cents to \$1.70 per cord, were allowed for pulpwood in major producing areas. Authority to grant applications for higher ceilings on printing and printed paper commodities was delegated by the OPA to its regional offices, effective June 1. Special provisions for obtaining individual adjustments in ceilings were provided for producers of a wide variety of paper products, including book and writing paper, ground wood specialty papers, napkins, facial tissues, and gummed kraft tape. A 7½-percent increase was allowed in the ceiling price paid by printers and industrial consumers for the lighter grade of chemical wood-pulp mimeograph paper. At the same time, the OPA established maximum prices for second-hand paper containers, which had been selling at prices up to 150 percent higher than those prevailing for new boxes.

Increasing demands for paper containers by the armed services and the industries engaged in direct military production, on the one hand, and the labor shortage in pulpwood areas, on the other, have contributed to the persistent shortage for paper and pulp. Another factor has been the failure of the waste-paper campaign to produce required quotas. Production of wood pulp showed little recovery from its slump in 1943, while stocks at the end of May 1944 were slightly less than at the end of December 1943 (see below). The supply situation in certain areas and for specific paper products throughout the Nation was much more critical than these figures would indicate. Thus, pulpwood inventories in the northeastern States in May 1944 were more than 20 percent below the level of May 1943. Production of book paper, fine paper, newsprint, and set-up boxboards was down from 7 to 15 percent during the first 5 months of 1944, as compared with the previous year. Allocation of paper by the War Production Board for civilian use was cut 14 percent, during the second quarter of 1944, below the amount allowed in the first quarter.

	Indexes (1939=100) of—	
	Wood-pulp pro- duction	Stocks of wood pulp at end of period
1942	146	117
1943	129	52
1944:		
January	131	40
February	127	42
March	137	44
April	129	46
May	139	51

BUILDING MATERIALS

From March to June there was an advance of 1.5 percent in prices of building materials. This advance was fairly general throughout the group, as indicated in the accompanying tabulation, although in earlier months by far the largest increases were for lumber. Building-

material prices have advanced steadily throughout the war, although more slowly during the past 2 years than previously.

	Percent of change—		
	Mar. 1944 to June 1944	June 1943 to June 1944	Aug. 1939 to June 1944
All building materials	+ 1.5	+ 4.8	+29.4
Brick and tile	+ .3	+ 1.6	+11.2
Cement	+3.0	+ 3.0	+ 5.6
Lumber	+2.2	+11.0	+70.9
Paint and paint materials	+1.2	+ 3.6	+28.7
Plumbing and heating	+ .7	+ 2.2	+16.5
Structural steel	0	0	0
Other building materials	+ .2	+ 1.3	+15.1

The great rise in construction in 1941-42—particularly for war housing, war plants, and camps for the armed forces—brought sharp advances in prices of almost all building materials up to 1942. After price control was initiated and the sharp decline in construction began, prices were more stable. The aggregate dollar volume of public and private construction in the second quarter of 1944 was down to about 50 percent of the 1943 level and 30 percent of the 1942 level.

The demand for certain kinds of lumber, however, has mounted continuously because of heavy Army requirements for special uses such as crating. Meanwhile, production has declined because of labor shortages, and the supply situation finally became so acute that WPB took action in July to control the distribution of lumber, beginning August 1. Price increases during the second quarter of 1944 were allowed by OPA for Douglas fir, northeastern hardwoods, and redwood, in order to stimulate output, following increases for southern pine in the previous quarter. At the end of June 1944 lumber prices on the average were 11 percent above those of June 1943 and 71 percent above their level in the summer of 1939.

Similarly, the price of rosin—one of the few products still uncontrolled by the OPA—rose 19 percent from March to June in response to a heavy demand arising from expanding industrial uses. An OPA ceiling established for this product at the end of the quarter brought the price of rosin down somewhat, early in July.

For cement, on the other hand, the demand has declined appreciably during the past year and a half, since its uses are more narrowly limited. A rise of 20 cents a barrel in the ceiling price for this product in the Northeastern States was attributed by the OPA to the need for compensating producers for the sharp drop in volume of sales and an accompanying rise in production costs. Reduced construction activity had a different effect with respect to prices of sinks and lavatories. With large stocks of "victory models" on hand, manufacturers cut prices by about 10 percent, in competition for the available business. These reductions were more than balanced in the plumbing and heating index, the change in which is shown above, by a rise in prices of heating boilers, allowed by the OPA to meet an advance in labor and other costs.

Consumer-Goods Markets

The problem of maintaining price stability in consumer-goods markets has now shifted from foods to clothing and housefurnishings.

Food was long the chief problem of price control, advancing sharply throughout the war period until the spring of 1943. The 1.2-percent rise in retail food costs during the second quarter of 1944, however, was primarily seasonal and followed a fairly steady decline which had been in progress during the previous 10 months, as indicated below.

	Percent of change—		
	Mar. 1944 to June 1944	June 1943 to June 1944	Aug. 1939 to June 1944
All items	+1.3	+0.5	+27.2
Food	+1.2	-4.4	+45.1
Clothing	+1.0	+7.9	+37.6
Rent	0	+1.1	+3.6
Fuel, electricity, and ice	-3.3	+1.8	+12.4
Housefurnishings	+7.3	+10.4	+37.6
Miscellaneous	+2.2	+5.2	+21.2

On the other hand, the advances from March to June for clothing and housefurnishings continued a rising trend which began at about the time food prices were stabilized, in the spring of 1943. These price increases have been coupled with widespread shortages and with considerable deterioration in quality of some of the items sold. The cost of services—many of which, such as medical care and motion-picture admissions, are still uncontrolled by the OPA—have also advanced substantially in recent months. Rents, utility rates, and fuel prices, however, were relatively stable during the quarter, and have been, on the whole, during the past 2 years.

In primary markets, prices of most of the basic consumer goods were stable, as shown below. The 0.4-percent decline for hides and leather was due to a 22-percent reduction in the price of sheepskins—the result of a sudden drop in Army purchases. There were fractional advances for cotton goods and housefurnishings, but these were not large enough to affect the group indexes materially. The advances in prices of farm products and foods were almost entirely the result of seasonal movements, especially for fresh fruits and vegetables. Prices of grains, cereal products, and livestock were slightly lower. Cotton prices were fairly steady during the quarter as a whole, declining in April and rising in June.

	Percent of change—		
	Mar. 1944 to June 1944	June 1943 to June 1944	Aug. 1939 to June 1944
Farm products	+1.1	-1.0	+104.9
Foods	+1.8	-2.8	+58.5
Hides and leather products	-0.4	-1.2	+25.6
Textile products	0	+0.4	+44.2

FOOD PRICES

Food prices advanced seasonally in the second quarter of 1944, after a decline which had persisted with but few interruptions since May 1943. The rise amounted on the average to 1.2 percent at retail and 1.8 percent in primary markets. Because of especially large supplies, however, increases for some commodities were less than those usually expected at this time of year, and for others, such as beef, veal, and pork at retail, there were contraseasonal declines. Total food supplies in the first half of 1944, according to Department of Agriculture estimates, were considerably above the level of the same period of 1943, although reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated the

continuance of many local shortages for certain foods. Thus, independent stores in many cities during the quarter were unable to obtain sufficient quantities of cheese, some meats, and canned fruits. The accompanying tabulation, based on information collected by Bureau representatives, shows the outstanding food shortages in independent stores in 56 cities for each month of the quarter.

	<i>Percent of independent stores out of stock on—</i>		
	<i>Apr. 18</i>	<i>May 16</i>	<i>June 15</i>
Veal	30	42	42
Lamb	21	44	37
Beef	¹ 11	² 14	² 24
Canned salmon	14	22	46
American cheese	49	50	47
Peaches, canned	15	20	26
Pineapple, canned	21	22	31

¹ All beef cuts.

² Steaks and roasts.

The sharpest price advances during the quarter were for fruits and vegetables, amounting on the average to 12 percent in primary markets and 7 percent at retail. White potatoes, at retail, sold at slightly more than 5 cents per pound in June 1944, 24 percent higher than at the beginning of the quarter. Green beans, carrots, sweet-potatoes, and oranges were among the other products in this group to rise sharply. The largest fluctuation during the quarter, however, occurred when early onions were harvested before the establishment of an OPA ceiling on the new 1944 crop. (OPA ceilings for this and certain other vegetables are established independently for each new crop.) The price of onions rose briefly as much as 185 percent in primary markets and 21 percent on the average at retail, but came down promptly in response to the new maximum-price schedule, when it was issued in April.

Aside from fresh fruits and vegetables, the only substantial rise during the quarter was a seasonal advance of 2.6 percent in the average retail price of roasting chickens. Other meat prices moved down slightly, both in primary markets and at retail, reflecting relatively heavy marketings of hogs and cattle. Meanwhile, the glut in egg supplies postponed the seasonal price rise which usually occurs from March to June. For the quarter as a whole, egg prices showed a decrease of 5 percent.

TEXTILES AND CLOTHING

Clothing costs at retail rose 1.0 percent from March to June, mainly because garments selling in the lower price lines grew increasingly scarce during the quarter, forcing more and more consumers to purchase goods in the higher price brackets. In the 12 months from June 1943 the cost of clothing advanced 8 percent; the rise since August 1939—37 percent—is greater than that for any other major element in the cost of living except food.

The reason for the disappearance of lower price lines in recent months is twofold. On the one hand, textiles of almost all types are available for civilian output, only in greatly reduced quantities. On the other, manufacturers—and retailers where possible—have been concentrating upon their more profitable items. Until the recent amendment to the Emergency Price Control Act, retailers were

prohibited from adding higher-priced lines than they carried in the base period (usually the spring or fall of 1942) for many types of clothing. The amendment passed on July 1 removed this restriction.

Prices of textiles and apparel in primary markets during the quarter were for the most part stable. The only notable change was a fractional rise for cotton goods as a result of adjustments in OPA ceilings for denim and chambray. However, several price advances are expected in the near future. The 1944 amendment to the Emergency Price Control Act requires the OPA to set ceilings on "major cotton products" at a level sufficient to reflect parity prices to growers. The price of raw cotton rose 5 percent from mid-May to the end of June, partly owing to this amendment, but it is still below parity. The OPA announced early in July that price revisions would be made for most types of 3.6 lb./yd. sanforized chambray, most cotton-yarn fabrics, knitted cotton heavyweight underwear, combed and carded yarns, and several types of textile housefurnishings. Clothing manufacturers immediately requested that this list be extended to include additional finished garments. None of these changes had been reflected in the markets up to mid-July.

Textile shortages are attributable directly to heavy military purchases. Current Navy requirements for 25,000,000 chambray shirts are expected by the trade to utilize most of the industry's productive capacity in the last half of 1944, leaving little of this material for the output of civilian work clothing. During the past two years the Navy has taken 65 percent of the output of all 3.9 lb./yd. chambray. The Navy's requirements this year for denim—an estimated 60,000,000 yards—will take 25 percent of the total annual production. Among the apparel items reported as particularly scarce in recent months are knitted underwear, infants' dresses, boys' wool suits, children's creepers and rompers, women's house dresses, men's shirts, and work clothing. To relieve this situation the WPB has issued several orders, in some cases allocating fabrics to, or offering priority assistance for, manufacturers of designated types of apparel.

HOUSEFURNISHINGS

The 7-percent rise in housefurnishings costs at retail during the second quarter of 1944 was considerably greater than that for any other group of goods or services. The sharp advance from March to June resulted from the return to civilian markets of furniture containing steel springs. Manufacture of these products had been banned by WPB order in November 1942. Increases in production costs and changes in models resulted in a substantial advance in prices, so that prices averaged 30 percent above the levels prevailing in 1942 when they were last on the market.

For other types of furniture during the quarter there were additional advances, primarily attributable to the progressive elimination of lower price lines, continuing a trend particularly marked during the previous 12 months. There were also advances in several cities for cook stoves and wool rugs.

For almost all types of housefurnishings, demand remained well ahead of supply during the second quarter of 1944, according to the reports of Bureau field representatives. This was true despite the relaxation of a few of the restrictions on civilian production, such as those relating to furniture containing steel springs. Thus, inexpen-

five bedroom suites were difficult to find in most cities, as were dining-room furniture, all-wool rugs, and the better grades of sheets and pillowcases.

FUELS AND UTILITY RATES

The composite charges for fuel and utility services to domestic consumers in large cities declined 0.3 percent from March to June, in part because of a slight drop in anthracite prices, and in part because of a substantial refund to consumers of excess profits on electricity, ordered by the Public Utility Commission in Portland, Oreg., in June. In most areas there were only minor fluctuations in fuel prices during the quarter and, aside from the change in Portland, utility rates were generally stable. In primary markets, average prices of fuel and lighting materials rose 0.4 percent.

Price changes during the quarter were limited to a slight rise in bituminous-coal prices, and a slight decline for anthracite. Owing to minor local adjustments, bituminous-coal prices rose slightly during the quarter—0.2 percent at wholesale and 0.6 percent at retail. Anthracite prices, however, declined 0.1 percent at wholesale and 1.4 percent at retail, mainly as a result of a general 15-cent reduction in f. o. b. mine price ceilings. This reduction was anticipated in December 1943, when OPA allowed ceiling increases sufficient to cover not only wage increases ordered by the War Labor Board, but also payment of back wages. The extra expense of the latter has now been amortized and the proportion of the increase attributable to it has been rescinded. Production of soft coal through the first 6 months of 1944 totaled 321 million tons, or 11 percent over the similar 1943 period and somewhat more than half the full year's anticipated requirements. Nevertheless, the margin of safety is so slim that coal-rationing regulations, governing the 1944-45 heating season, were imposed during the quarter.

Petroleum prices were unchanged from March to June, but a directive issued by the Office of Economic Stabilization was scheduled to raise certain crude-oil prices on August 1. Prices affected are those relating to crude oil produced from marginal wells (those with output averaging less than 9 barrels daily), and the advances allowed range from 20 to 75 cents a barrel. Since these price increases will be absorbed by a 55-million-dollar Government subsidy paid at the refiners' level, they will not affect net prices actually paid by crude-petroleum buyers or prices of refinery products.

HOUSING COSTS

The cost of rent in family homes and apartments in 34 large cities remained unchanged on the average, from March to June, continuing the stability evidenced since the OPA undertook rent control in most metropolitan areas in the spring and summer of 1942. There were rent increases in 15 cities during the quarter and in 8 cities there were reductions, but none of these changes was large enough to affect materially the national average for the 34 large cities as a group. Rent costs in June were only 3.6 percent above their level in the summer of 1939.

The shortage of housing was still pronounced in most cities, although there was evidence of some slight improvement during the

quarter. In some cities, especially Scranton and Cincinnati, there was an increase in the number of rental vacancies, most of them in the least desirable neighborhoods. In others, notably Seattle, there was an appreciable rise in the number of changes in tenancy reported during the quarter. War housing projects provided some relief in a number of cities through the lowering of requirements for occupancy. Through June 1944, war housing projects had provided more than 970,000 new family-dwelling units.

Although quoted rents were not changed, there were continued reports of poorer maintenance, repair, and services than those ordinarily provided for tenants. The sale of rented homes for owner occupancy continued at a high rate, reflecting the difficulty of finding adequate rental housing. Evictions as the result of such sales were on the rise in several of the cities surveyed by the Bureau, including Manchester, N. H., and Richmond, Va.

MISCELLANEOUS GOODS AND SERVICES

At the end of the second quarter of 1944 the composite cost of miscellaneous goods and services priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for its cost-of-living index had advanced steadily for 22 consecutive months. From March to June the rise was 2.2 percent; from August 1942, 10 percent; from August 1939, 21 percent. The reason for this persistent advance lies primarily in the steady increase in the cost of services, many of which are still uncontrolled by the OPA. Thus, since June 1939, the cost of barber service advanced 42 percent, beauty service 58 percent, motion-picture admissions 49 percent, and medical care 12 percent. In cities such as Pittsburgh and Seattle, men's haircuts now cost from 85 cents to \$1.00, as against 50 cents before the war.

During the second quarter of 1944, service costs in many cities continued to rise, but the advance was substantially accelerated by the new excise tax which became effective April 1. As the result of this tax, and the tendency to round off admission fees in order to eliminate pennies, motion-picture admissions advanced 13 percent, and there were also increases in telephone rates, prices of cosmetics, and transportation rates. Newspaper prices also continued to rise, with 2-cent papers rising to 3 cents, and 3-cent papers to 5 cents in some cities, including Denver and Washington.



Wholesale Prices in July 1944

DURING July, commodity prices in primary markets¹ dropped 0.2 percent below the 19-year peak reached in June. Weakening grain markets, on reports of record crops, and seasonally lower prices for fruits and vegetables accounted for most of the decline. The decrease brought the Bureau of Labor Statistics all-commodity index to 104.1

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

percent of the 1926 average. On the average, prices have moved within a comparatively narrow range during the past year. The general index is less than 1 percent higher than in July 1943. It is, however, nearly 39 percent higher than in August 1939.

Led by a decline of 1.6 percent in average prices for grains, farm products at the primary market level dropped 0.7 percent during the month. Prices of foods also declined 0.7 percent, principally as a result of a decrease of 5.7 percent for fruits and vegetables.

There were few important changes in industrial commodity markets in July. Textile products advanced 0.2 percent as a result of higher prices for worsted yarn, and an upward adjustment in the ceiling price for denim. An increase in the producer's price of phosphate rock, together with the usual elimination of seasonal discounts on potashes, caused the chemicals and allied products group index to advance 0.1 percent. The miscellaneous commodity group index also increased 0.1 percent between June and July. A sharp decline in prices for shearlings, together with lower prices for goatskins, brought the index for the hides and leather products group down 0.2 percent. Slightly lower prices for anthracite more than offset minor increases in quotations for bituminous coal in some areas and accounted for a decline of 0.1 percent in average prices for fuel and lighting materials. The general level of prices for metals and metal products, building materials, and housefurnishing goods remained unchanged from the June average.

The decline in prices for agricultural products accounted for a decrease of 0.5 percent in the index for raw materials. Average prices for semimanufactured commodities rose 0.1 percent, while the general level of prices for manufactured products has remained unchanged for the past 3 months.

Weakening grain markets on reports of bumper wheat crops all over the country, together with seasonally lower prices for fresh fruits and vegetables, brought average prices for farm products at the primary market level down 0.7 percent during July. Grains dropped 1.6 percent, with wheat down 2.4 percent; oats, 1.7 percent; and barley, 0.2 percent. Hay also averaged lower than in June. Sharp seasonal declines were reported in prices for apples and onions. Quotations for lemons and sweetpotatoes were off about 5 percent. Substantial increases in prices for hogs and live poultry accounted for an advance of 0.3 percent in average prices for livestock and poultry, although lower prices were reported for cattle and sheep. Cotton prices again rose 0.6 percent to a new high. Rye advanced 1.4 percent. Quotations for eggs were higher in most markets. Increases were also reported for oranges, white potatoes, and for fresh milk at Chicago.

Led by a decline of 5.7 percent in markets for fresh fruits and vegetables, average prices for foods decreased 0.7 percent. In addition, prices were lower for wheat flour in most markets and for cured pork and dressed poultry. Quotations were higher for rye flour, potatoes, oranges, fresh pork, eggs, and cured fish.

A further reduction in prices for shearlings, together with lower quotations for imported goatskins, caused the index for the hides and leather products group to decline 0.2 percent. Prices for shoes and other leather products were firm.

An increase of 0.2 percent occurred in prices for textiles during the month when prices for denim were raised 1 cent per pound under the Stabilization Extension Act of 1944 to set parity-controlled ceilings for cloth. Higher prices were reported for worsted yarn, while prices for uniform serge declined.

In the fuel and lighting materials group, minor declines for anthracite in some areas more than offset fractional increases for bituminous coal in certain markets with the result that the group index dropped 0.1 percent. Sales realization prices for electricity were lower for May than for April, while realized prices for gas advanced in June.

The index for metals and metal products remained unchanged at the June level. The mercury market continued weak through the first half of July, with prices dropping to \$98.00 a flask. The market became firmer after the midmonth and quotations rose to \$103.00. Higher prices were reported for common bar iron in the Pittsburgh area, and also for farm wagons.

Slight upward adjustments in prices for pine, spruce, and redwood lumber, and for common building brick were not reflected in the building materials group index. It remained unchanged at the June average, 115.9 percent of the 1926 level. Quotations for rosin and turpentine dropped nearly 2 percent.

An increase of 20 cents per ton on phosphate rock, together with the elimination of the usual seasonal discounts on potashes, caused the chemicals and allied products group index to advance 0.1 percent.

The index for the housefurnishing goods group remained steady at 104.3, with average prices for furniture and furnishings stationary.

Prices for soap products continued to decline.

During the year price fluctuations for most commodities were moderate. Outstanding changes were a 33-percent increase for drugs and pharmaceuticals, which resulted from increased excise taxes, and a 12-percent increase for lumber resulting from increased ceiling prices to compensate for higher operating costs and designed to stimulate production. Coal and coke prices also were somewhat higher than in July of last year. Hides and skins, on the other hand, declined nearly 8 percent over the year period.

Some of the important agricultural commodity markets declined during the year period. Livestock and poultry prices dropped over 3 percent and fruits and vegetables nearly 6 percent. Grains, however, were nearly 8 percent higher than a year ago and dairy products were over 1 percent higher.

Soon after the outbreak of the war, prices for most commodities began to rise sharply. Average prices for farm products in July 1944 were 103 percent higher than in August 1939. During this period, foods rose 57 percent; textiles, 44 percent; chemicals and allied products, almost 42 percent; building materials, 29 percent; hides and leather products, 25 percent; housefurnishing goods, nearly 22 percent; fuel and lighting materials, over 14 percent; and metals and metal products, 11 percent.

Percentage comparisons of the July 1944 level of wholesale prices with June 1944, July 1943, and August 1939 with corresponding index numbers are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, July 1944, Compared with June 1944, July 1943, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	July 1944	June 1944	Percent of change	July 1943	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	104.1	104.3	-0.2	103.2	+0.2	75.0	+38.8
Farm products	124.1	125.0	-7	125.0	-7	61.0	+103.4
Grains	125.2	127.2	-1.6	116.0	+7.9	51.5	+143.1
Livestock and poultry	123.4	123.0	+3	127.6	-3.3	66.0	+87.0
Other farm products	123.2	124.7	-1.2	124.8	-1.3	60.1	+105.0
Foods	105.8	106.5	-7	107.2	-1.3	67.2	+57.4
Dairy products	110.3	110.3	0	108.9	+1.3	67.9	+62.4
Cereal products	94.3	94.7	-4	93.8	+5	71.9	+31.2
Fruits and vegetables	129.9	137.7	-5.7	138.0	-5.9	58.5	+122.1
Meats	105.9	106.1	-2	105.9	0	73.7	+43.7
Other foods	94.7	93.0	+1.8	97.1	-2.5	60.3	+57.0
Hides and leather products	116.2	116.4	-2	117.8	-1.4	92.7	+25.4
Shoes	126.3	126.3	0	126.4	-1	100.8	+25.3
Hides and skins	106.8	108.4	-1.5	116.0	-7.9	77.2	+38.3
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	+18.6
Textile products	98.0	97.8	+2	97.4	+6	67.8	+44.5
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	+31.3
Cotton goods	114.0	113.9	+1	112.6	+1.2	65.5	+74.0
Hosiery and underwear	70.6	70.6	0	70.5	+1	61.5	+14.8
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	+6.3
Silk	(1)	(1)		(1)		44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods	112.9	112.5	+4	112.5	+4	75.5	+49.5
Other textile products	100.5	100.5	0	98.7	+1.8	63.7	+57.8
Fuel and lighting materials	83.2	83.3	-1	81.0	+2.7	72.6	+14.6
Anthracite	95.4	95.5	-1	89.6	+6.5	72.1	+32.3
Bituminous coal	120.5	120.4	+1	116.5	+3.4	96.0	+25.5
Coke	130.7	130.7	0	122.4	+6.8	104.2	+25.4
Electricity	(1)	(1)		50.0		75.8	
Gas	(1)	79.3		77.6		86.7	
Petroleum and products	64.0	64.0	0	62.8	+1.9	51.7	+23.8
Metal and metal products	103.7	103.7	0	103.7	0	93.2	+11.3
Agricultural implements	97.3	97.2	+1	96.9	+4	93.5	+4.1
Farm machinery	98.4	98.4	0	98.0	+4	94.7	+3.9
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.1	0	95.1	+2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	85.7	85.8	-1	86.0	-3	74.6	+14.9
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Building materials	115.9	115.9	0	110.7	+4.7	89.6	+29.4
Brick and tile	100.7	100.6	+1	99.0	+1.7	90.5	+11.3
Cement	96.4	96.4	0	93.6	+3.0	91.8	+5.6
Lumber	154.2	154.0	+1	137.1	+12.5	94.1	+71.1
Paint and paint materials	105.5	105.7	-2	102.0	+3.4	82.1	+28.5
Plumbing and heating	92.4	92.4	0	90.4	+2.2	79.3	+16.5
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	103.1	103.0	+1	101.3	+1.8	89.5	+15.2
Chemicals and allied products	105.3	105.2	+1	100.1	+5.2	74.2	+41.9
Chemicals	96.2	96.2	0	96.4	-2	83.8	+14.8
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	220.1	220.1	0	165.2	+33.2	77.1	+185.5
Fertilizer materials	81.1	79.9	+1.5	79.3	+2.3	65.5	+23.8
Mixed fertilizers	86.3	86.3	0	85.8	+6	73.1	+18.1
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	0	102.0	0	40.6	+151.2
Housefurnishings goods	104.3	104.3	0	102.6	+1.7	85.6	+21.8
Furnishings	107.2	107.2	0	107.1	+1	90.0	+19.1
Furniture	101.4	101.4	0	98.1	+3.4	81.1	+25.0
Miscellaneous	93.6	93.5	+1	92.3	+1.4	73.3	+27.7
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	+20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	0	149.7	+6.6	68.4	+133.3
Paper and pulp	107.2	107.2	0	104.3	+2.8	80.0	+34.0
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	0	46.2	0	34.9	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	96.9	96.7	+2	96.3	+6	81.3	+10.2
Raw materials	113.6	114.2	-5	113.6	0	66.5	+70.8
Semimanufactured articles	93.9	93.8	+1	92.8	+1.2	74.5	+26.0
Manufactured products	100.9	100.9	0	99.6	+1.3	79.1	+27.6
All commodities other than farm products	99.6	99.6	0	98.3	+1.3	77.9	+27.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.5	98.5	0	96.9	+1.7	80.1	+23.0

1 Data not yet available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to July 1944

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1943, and by months from July 1943 to July 1944, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	96.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	93.3
1932	46.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	78.9	75.1	64.4	64.4
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.0
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.0
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	90.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.8
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.0
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	102.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	106.9	98.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	100.3	102.7	92.2	100.1
<i>1943</i>											
July	126.0	107.2	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.7	110.7	100.1	102.6	92.3	102.2
August	123.5	105.8	117.8	97.4	80.9	103.7	112.2	100.2	102.6	92.6	101.8
September	123.1	105.0	117.8	97.5	81.0	105.7	112.5	100.3	102.6	93.0	100.1
October	122.2	103.1	117.8	97.6	81.0	103.7	112.7	100.4	102.6	93.1	100.0
November	121.4	105.8	116.5	97.7	81.2	103.8	113.1	100.3	102.8	93.2	100.9
December	121.8	105.6	117.0	97.7	82.1	108.8	113.4	100.4	102.8	93.3	102.2
<i>1944</i>											
January	121.8	104.9	117.2	97.7	82.3	103.7	113.5	100.4	104.5	93.2	101.2
February	122.5	104.5	116.9	97.7	83.1	103.7	113.6	100.4	104.2	93.4	100.6
March	122.6	104.6	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	114.2	100.4	104.3	93.5	102.8
April	123.2	104.9	116.9	97.8	83.0	103.7	115.2	105.6	104.4	93.5	102.9
May	122.9	105.0	117.0	97.8	83.2	106.7	115.7	106.4	104.3	93.5	104.0
June	125.0	106.5	116.4	97.8	83.3	103.7	115.9	105.2	104.3	93.5	104.3
July	124.1	105.8	116.2	98.0	83.2	103.7	115.9	105.3	104.3	93.6	104.1

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 8 and 9 of Wholesale Prices, July to December and year 1942 (Bulletin No. 736).

 Farm
Food
Hides
Textile
Build
Chem
House
Misc

Raw
Semic
Manuf
All co
All co
Food

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities
[1936=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1936	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1943					
1939	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6						
1942	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	August	112.7	92.9	99.7	98.5	97.1
1943	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	September	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
1944	79.9	75.9	82.0	82.7	79.6	October	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
1945	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	November	111.3	92.9	100.2	98.8	97.4
1946	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	December	112.1	93.1	100.2	99.0	97.6
1947	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	1944					
1948	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	January	112.2	93.2	100.2	99.1	97.8
1949	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	February	112.8	93.4	100.4	99.3	98.0
1950	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	March	113.4	93.7	100.5	99.3	98.1
1951	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9	April	113.2	93.6	100.8	99.6	98.4
1952	113.6	92.8	99.6	98.3	96.9	May	113.0	93.7	100.9	99.7	98.5
1953	July					June	114.2	93.8	100.9	99.6	98.5
1954	July					July	113.6	93.9	100.9	99.6	98.5

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during June and July 1944 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, June and July 1944
[1936=100]

Commodity group	July 29	July 22	July 15	July 8	July 1	June 24	June 17	June 10	June 3
All commodities	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	104.1	103.7	103.7	104.0	103.9
Farm products	124.1	124.1	124.2	124.1	125.5	123.0	122.9	125.0	123.9
Food	105.3	106.0	105.6	106.0	104.9	104.9	105.4	105.4	105.2
Hides and leather products	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8	116.8	117.7	117.7	117.7	117.7
Textile products	97.4	97.4	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3	97.3
Fuel and lighting materials	83.9	83.8	83.8	83.8	83.8	83.8	83.7	83.7	83.7
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials	115.9	118.9	115.8	115.8	115.9	115.9	115.8	115.8	115.7
Chemicals and allied products	102.8	102.8	102.2	102.4	103.3	103.3	103.3	103.3	103.3
Housefurnishing goods	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0	106.0
Miscellaneous	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3	93.3
Raw materials	113.8	113.8	113.9	113.8	114.6	113.2	113.1	114.4	113.8
Semimanufactured articles	93.8	93.8	93.7	93.7	93.7	93.7	93.7	93.7	93.6
Manufactured products	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.1	101.0	101.0	101.1
All commodities other than farm products	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.6
All commodities other than farm products and foods	98.7	98.7	98.6	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7	98.7

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, June 1944

FOR every 1,000 workers on factory pay rolls in June, 54 quit, 7 were discharged, 5 were laid off, 4 left to enter the armed forces, and 1 left for other reasons. The military separation rate of 4 per 1,000 was the lowest since the attack on Pearl Harbor.

The accession rate for all manufacturing was 75 per 1,000, the highest this year, and reflected the hiring of students and teachers for the summer months. Each of the major manufacturing groups reported an increase in the accession rate.

The slight increase in the quit rate from 53 to 54 per 1,000 was primarily due to the fact that, with the close of schools, some women were obliged to give up their jobs to look after their children. Overconfidence as to the early end of the war prompted some workers to quit and go home to their former peacetime jobs, while the beginning of the haying and fruit-harvesting seasons was advanced by others as a reason for quitting.

Although the over-all lay-off rate for manufacturing was the same in June as in May, increases in this rate were reported by several groups. The largest increases were reported by the transportation-equipment and chemicals groups, both of which are engaged in war production. The increase in the lay-off rate in the former reflected curtailment in production schedules and the cancellation of contracts in both the aircraft and shipbuilding industries, while the increase in the latter was brought about by further curtailments in the production of small-arms ammunition.

The separation rate for the metal-mining group was 72 per 1,000 employees, slightly above that for manufacturing. Contrary to the pattern for manufacturing, the accession rates in metal mining, as well as in each of the coal-mining industries, declined.

The separation rate for women in manufacturing was 84 per 1,000 as compared with 61 for men. However, women were hired at the rate of 95 per 1,000 as compared with 62 for men.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries,¹ June 1944*

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1944	6.69	6.52	7.33	6.78	7.08	7.07	7.56	8.18	8.16	7.02	6.37	6.55
1943	7.11	7.04	7.69	7.54	6.57	7.07	7.56	8.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46
1939	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01				
Quit:												
1944	4.60	4.56	5.00	4.90	5.27	5.38						
1943	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	4.81	5.20	5.61	6.30	6.29	5.19	4.46	4.38
1939	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.07	.93	.83	.69
Discharge:												
1944	.69	.64	.65	.59	.63	.68						
1943	.52	.30	.57	.53	.55	.61	.68	.67	.63	.64	.63	.60
1939	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12
Lay-off: ²												
1944	.79	.76	.87	.58	.50	.50						
1943	.74	.54	.52	.64	.45	.50	.50	.46	.53	.51	.69	.99
1939	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65
Military:												
1944	.53	.49	.73	.64	.60	.44						
1943	1.26	1.23	1.12	.87	.69	.69	.69	.67	.64	.61	.52	.50
Miscellaneous: ³												
1944	.08	.07	.08	.07	.08	.07						
1943	.14	.12	.12	.09	.07	.07	.08	.08	.08	.07	.07	.08
Accession:												
1944	6.47	5.46	5.76	5.53	6.39	7.53						
1943	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	7.18	8.40	7.83	7.62	7.73	7.17	6.62	5.19
1939	4.09	3.66	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84

¹ Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor-turnover rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor-turnover data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. The labor-turnover sample is not as extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey, as proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

²Preliminary.

³Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

⁴Data for 1939 included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ June 1944*

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944						
<i>Manufacturing</i>												
Ordnance	7.12	6.98	5.04	4.76	0.88	0.81	0.75	0.80	0.45	0.61	9.34	7.62
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment ⁴	5.54	5.43	3.80	3.64	.70	.64	.54	.55	.50	.60	-----	-----
Ammunition, except small-arms ⁴	8.29	6.10	6.39	6.01	1.03	.91	.43	.59	.44	.59	9.15	8.07
Tanks ⁵	7.10	7.14	3.61	3.56	.85	.90	2.25	2.11	.39	.57	-----	-----
Sighting and fire-control equipment ⁴	3.81	3.54	2.55	2.23	.46	.43	.27	.16	.53	.72	-----	-----
Iron and steel and their products	5.30	5.41	3.87	3.80	.51	.43	.38	.38	.54	.71	5.70	4.73
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.59	3.68	2.78	2.60	.20	.16	.10	.20	.51	.72	4.22	3.34
Gray-iron castings	9.10	8.68	7.09	6.70	1.18	.92	.24	.43	.59	.68	9.15	8.07
Malleable-iron castings	6.61	6.82	5.54	5.74	.42	.42	.03	.04	.32	.62	6.18	4.76
Steel castings	6.98	7.91	5.66	6.28	.60	.73	.16	.20	.56	.70	6.85	6.08
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.11	7.00	3.98	5.14	.30	.36	.33	.34	.50	1.25	5.89	7.57
Tin cans and other tinware	13.64	13.80	10.81	10.02	1.88	1.30	.39	1.96	.56	.52	20.47	14.79
Wire products	3.09	3.36	2.22	2.25	.24	.26	.17	.23	.46	.62	3.45	4.08
Cutlery and edge tools	(9)	6.16	(9)	5.45	(9)	.32	(9)	.05	(9)	.34	(9)	8.07
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	6.00	6.58	4.97	5.17	.53	.57	.10	.21	.31	.63	6.71	6.10
Hardware	4.75	5.23	3.57	4.22	.33	.28	.38	.34	.47	.59	4.93	4.03

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ June 1944—Continued*

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944						
Iron and steel ³ and their products—Con.												
Plumbers' supplies	6.97	5.55	5.55	4.40	0.55	0.47	0.17	0.28	0.70	0.40	6.81	3.38
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	9.38	9.81	5.91	6.72	.93	.95	1.95	1.60	.59	.54	12.12	9.55
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	6.64	7.53	3.89	4.75	.45	.73	1.63	1.50	.67	.55	4.24	4.71
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	8.07	8.35	5.00	6.50	.74	.62	.90	.77	.53	.46	10.03	7.16
Fabricated structural-metal products	9.36	9.16	6.30	6.17	1.62	1.33	.69	.64	.75	1.02	9.31	8.67
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	6.07	5.36	4.28	4.20	.77	.43	.60	.24	.42	.49	6.38	4.77
Forgings, iron and steel	4.94	5.16	3.82	3.98	.59	.78	.14	.17	.59	.83	4.19	3.60
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	8.30	6.48	3.48	3.49	1.55	.71	2.62	1.39	.65	.89	—	—
Electrical machinery	5.46	5.48	4.05	4.04	.65	.63	.32	.30	.44	.61	6.45	5.07
Electrical equipment for industrial use	3.94	4.64	2.89	3.14	.45	.49	.15	.24	.45	.77	4.46	4.06
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	6.80	6.66	4.94	5.12	.78	.78	.51	.29	.37	.47	8.47	6.72
Communication equipment, except radios	4.91	3.92	3.64	2.86	.42	.39	.29	.13	.56	.54	5.86	2.69
Machinery, except electrical	5.17	5.34	3.69	3.59	.62	.61	.27	.33	.59	.81	5.54	4.42
Engines and turbines ⁴	5.39	4.96	3.60	3.11	.77	.71	.38	.34	.64	.80	—	—
Agricultural machinery and tractors	6.57	6.27	5.11	4.47	.50	.52	.26	.41	.60	.87	7.07	6.18
Machine tools	3.82	3.70	2.62	2.35	.46	.47	.18	.09	.56	.79	3.90	2.73
Machine-tool accessories	4.83	5.36	3.01	3.25	.77	.76	.41	.42	.64	.58	4.84	3.86
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	4.24	4.34	2.94	2.67	.54	.63	.07	.13	.09	.91	4.72	3.22
Textile machinery	(9)	5.72	(9)	4.22	(9)	.14	(9)	.40	(9)	.96	(9)	4.82
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.31	5.92	3.90	4.04	.64	.68	.24	.43	.53	.77	5.55	4.24
Pumps and pumping equipment	5.87	5.91	4.21	4.30	.69	.41	.33	.44	.64	.76	5.47	4.00
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	8.48	7.83	5.57	5.15	1.32	1.15	.85	.54	.74	.99	6.87	6.18
Aircraft	8.11	6.80	5.42	4.63	.57	.64	1.15	.39	.97	1.24	5.45	4.70
Aircraft parts	5.59	5.63	3.77	3.84	.90	.68	.48	.46	.44	.65	7.00	4.96
Shipbuilding and repairs	10.44	9.91	6.74	6.32	2.07	1.89	.86	.69	.77	1.01	8.48	8.01
Automobiles	5.64	6.02	3.94	4.07	.69	.70	.54	.54	.47	.71	6.58	6.07
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	5.30	5.33	3.48	3.24	.61	.51	1.02	.99	.33	.50	7.14	5.30
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.78	6.47	4.28	4.62	.74	.82	.20	.24	.56	.79	6.15	6.88
Nonferrous metals and their products	7.23	7.54	5.34	5.29	.67	.62	.59	.84	.63	.79	6.83	5.82
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.79	4.36	4.01	3.38	.34	.21	.05	.15	.39	.63	4.50	3.15
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.11	14.46	9.14	9.51	.74	.81	1.24	2.98	.99	1.16	9.66	8.08
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.37	4.57	3.27	3.34	.27	.46	.30	.15	.53	.63	3.44	2.87
Aluminum and magnesium products	5.98	5.81	4.54	4.36	.60	.54	.31	.15	.53	.73	8.77	9.07
Lighting equipment	7.81	8.16	5.50	5.51	.82	.70	.74	1.03	.75	.92	6.92	5.77
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	7.37	7.04	5.80	5.57	.67	.60	.46	.26	.42	.61	7.90	6.54
Lumber and timber basic products	9.63	9.01	7.92	7.44	.47	.42	.55	.50	.69	.65	10.09	8.66
Sawmills	9.15	8.69	7.64	7.02	.38	.37	.36	.61	.77	.69	9.73	7.77
Planing and plywood mills	8.80	7.78	6.86	6.45	.73	.56	.73	.21	.46	.56	9.25	7.36
Furniture and finished lumber products ⁵	9.22	11.00	8.04	9.68	.67	.00	.12	.36	.39	.45	11.20	10.30
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings ⁵	9.17	11.35	7.99	10.02	.66	.68	.14	.24	.38	.41	11.16	11.29
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.81	6.00	4.52	4.52	.38	.33	.46	.53	.45	.62	6.73	5.11
Glass and glass products	6.04	6.12	4.04	4.33	.51	.46	.66	.55	.56	.61	6.35	—
Cement	3.56	5.68	2.80	2.77	.15	.13	.33	2.14	.28	.64	6.06	5.12
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	7.35	7.06	6.28	5.84	.37	.23	.29	.44	.47	.55	7.62	5.81
Pottery and related products	6.84	6.64	6.09	5.85	.31	.28	.10	.08	.34	.43	9.28	6.94

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,¹ June 1944—Continued*

Total acces- sion	Group and industry	Total separa- tion		Quit		Dis- charge		Lay-off		Military and mis- cellane- ous		Total acces- sion	
		June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944	June 1944 ²	May 1944						
1.81	Textile-mill products	6.75	6.96	5.73	5.80	0.39	0.36	0.29	0.27	0.34	0.44	6.92	5.55
1.82	Cotton	7.73	7.97	6.58	6.77	.44	.42	.32	.27	.39	.51	7.66	6.35
1.83	Silk and rayon goods	7.42	7.23	6.24	6.12	.55	.47	.25	.23	.38	.41	7.90	6.45
1.84	Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	3.79	4.42	3.01	3.65	.23	.19	.30	.31	.25	.27	3.96	3.31
1.85	Hosiery, full-fashioned	5.91	5.92	5.28	5.17	.16	.17	.23	.11	.22	.47	5.79	5.14
1.86	Hosiery, seamless	7.08	7.30	6.51	6.45	.28	.20	.08	.36	.21	.29	8.11	5.76
1.87	Knitted underwear	5.54	6.36	4.87	5.55	.26	.18	.22	.48	.19	.15	6.66	4.23
1.88	Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	5.43	4.90	3.98	3.57	.66	.57	.33	.29	.47	.47	4.80	3.84
1.89	Apparel and other finished textile products	6.55	6.99	5.88	5.81	.23	.23	.35	.81	.09	.14	7.32	6.14
1.90	Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.54	4.59	4.26	4.17	.09	.12	.13	.19	.06	.11	4.98	4.38
1.91	Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	6.47	6.97	5.95	6.16	.33	.26	.10	.44	.09	.11	7.74	6.40
1.92	Leather and leather products	6.40	6.20	5.47	5.22	.37	.41	.19	.20	.37	.37	7.08	6.08
1.93	Leather	4.33	4.36	3.55	3.47	.26	.30	.20	.12	.32	.47	5.62	4.87
1.94	Boots and shoes	6.81	6.53	5.84	5.54	.39	.43	.20	.21	.35	.35	7.41	6.32
1.95	Food and kindred products	11.07	11.17	9.62	9.36	.59	.56	.38	.53	.46	.46	14.02	11.09
1.96	Meat products	11.28	11.74	9.60	9.67	.64	.64	.39	.54	.62	.62	13.86	11.94
1.97	Grain-mill products	11.47	9.75	10.02	7.63	.70	.63	.17	.79	.58	.70	14.41	9.87
1.98	Tobacco manufactures	8.25	7.79	7.60	7.15	.34	.29	.17	.13	.14	.24	9.17	7.15
1.99	Paper and allied products	6.66	7.08	5.54	5.77	.43	.41	.15	.33	.54	.57	8.04	6.98
2.00	Paper and pulp	5.76	6.40	4.65	5.13	.35	.33	.19	.32	.57	.62	8.57	6.66
2.01	Paper boxes	8.90	8.96	7.73	7.44	.59	.56	.07	.47	.51	.49	11.46	8.17
2.02	Chemicals and allied products	6.14	5.96	3.89	3.68	.49	.50	1.23	1.05	.54	.73	6.51	5.02
2.03	Paints, varnishes, and colors	5.40	4.75	4.38	3.64	.64	.62	.12	.15	.29	.44	6.59	4.93
2.04	Rayon and allied products	4.48	4.32	3.53	3.13	.22	.22	.23	.25	.50	.72	6.25	4.09
2.05	Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.99	5.08	3.68	3.64	.59	.60	.10	.18	.62	.66	6.06	4.79
2.06	Explosives ³	4.44	4.80	3.13	2.36	.44	.48	.30	.61	.67	1.35	—	—
2.07	Small-arms ammunition ⁴	10.61	9.67	4.37	4.12	.59	.43	5.10	4.18	.55	.94	—	—
2.08	Products of petroleum and coal	3.27	3.38	2.36	2.31	.28	.34	.21	.18	.42	.55	3.92	3.84
2.09	Petroleum refining	3.12	3.31	2.24	2.25	.25	.33	.22	.19	.41	.54	3.78	3.77
2.10	Rubber products	6.74	6.81	5.65	5.58	.42	.44	.23	.25	.44	.54	7.52	5.65
2.11	Rubber tires and inner tubes	5.72	5.75	4.75	4.50	.31	.30	.21	.29	.45	.57	6.56	5.07
2.12	Rubber footwear and related products	8.11	7.66	7.28	6.77	.43	.38	.01	.02	.44	.52	8.90	6.14
2.13	Miscellaneous rubber industries	7.66	7.78	6.41	6.52	.54	.51	.27	.24	.44	.51	8.17	6.17
2.14	Miscellaneous industries	4.84	4.88	3.55	3.36	.53	.44	.23	.44	.53	.64	5.05	4.33
2.15	Nonmanufacturing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2.16	Metal mining	7.24	7.29	5.23	5.15	.44	.48	.45	.21	1.12	1.45	4.20	4.82
2.17	Iron-ore	3.87	4.01	2.64	2.70	.18	.16	.14	.09	.91	1.06	2.67	3.00
2.18	Copper-ore	9.30	8.64	6.91	6.30	.44	.44	.38	.28	1.60	1.62	5.29	5.07
2.19	Lead and zinc-ore	7.51	9.54	5.88	7.07	.55	.41	.12	.11	.98	1.95	4.86	6.00
2.20	Metal mining, not elsewhere classified, including aluminum-ore	11.08	8.50	7.27	5.42	.98	1.50	1.96	.51	.83	1.16	5.33	6.95
2.21	Coal mining:	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2.22	Anthracite	1.69	1.72	1.38	1.33	.08	.02	.07	.09	.21	.28	1.74	1.96
2.23	Bituminous	3.54	3.62	2.91	2.84	.17	.17	.07	.07	.39	.54	3.02	3.44
2.24	Public utilities:	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2.25	Telephone	3.77	3.33	8.26	2.84	.18	.13	.14	.13	.22	.23	4.80	3.24
2.26	Telegraph	4.01	3.08	8.52	2.73	.11	.09	.19	.08	.19	.18	4.43	3.52

¹ Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turnover have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-rolls sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are still classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major product.

² Footnotes continued on following page.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor-Turnover Rates (Per 100 Employees)¹ for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, June 1944²*

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
All manufacturing	6.12	8.35	4.33	6.96	6.21	8.34
Ordnance						
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	6.05	8.93	3.94	7.55	8.33	12.33
Ammunition, except small-arms	4.98	7.16	3.12	5.76	10.35	9.60
Tanks	7.09	9.74	4.77	8.36	9.18	14.45
Sighting and fire-control equipment	6.88	9.06	4.28	7.46	7.46	11.01
Iron and steel and their products	4.66	8.81	3.25	6.90	4.93	10.43
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.16	7.06	2.24	6.32	3.56	9.64
Gray-iron castings	9.04	9.75	7.15	6.30	9.15	9.11
Maleable-iron castings	6.42	8.00	5.38	6.69	5.80	9.38
Steel castings	6.77	9.19	5.52	7.09	6.63	9.12
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	4.97	6.64	3.86	5.34	5.52	9.30
Firearms, .50 caliber and under	7.73	11.58	2.63	5.74	3.82	10.73
Electrical machinery	3.93	6.93	2.41	5.65	4.60	8.25
Electrical equipment for industrial use	2.92	5.51	1.86	4.45	3.11	6.30
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	4.77	7.93	2.87	6.43	6.63	9.81
Communication equipment, except radios	3.54	6.04	1.87	5.11	4.60	6.90
Machinery, except electrical	4.52	7.52	3.01	6.17	4.93	8.27
Engines and turbines	4.71	7.41	2.91	5.63	5.12	8.00
Machine tools	3.36	6.53	2.12	5.37	3.23	8.11
Machine-tool accessories	4.45	6.03	2.56	4.46	4.23	6.80
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.65	7.06	2.31	6.03	3.82	9.02
General industrial machinery, except pumps	4.56	7.51	3.08	6.35	4.76	7.98
Pumps and pumping equipment	5.40	7.86	3.60	6.77	4.26	10.55
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	7.93	9.85	4.89	7.23	6.12	9.14
Aircraft	7.26	9.44	4.30	7.16	4.33	7.17
Aircraft parts	4.61	7.91	3.02	5.57	4.40	8.74
Shipbuilding and repairs	10.08	13.09	6.23	9.44	7.98	13.45
Nonferrous metals and their products	6.89	8.36	4.90	6.84	6.32	8.94
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.68	6.51	3.87	5.99	4.23	9.51
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.33	16.31	9.17	8.93	9.61	10.06
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	3.78	6.17	2.70	4.98	3.07	4.55
Aluminum and magnesium products	7.38	9.31	5.06	7.23	6.72	7.70
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	6.53	9.33	4.81	8.11	6.87	10.59
Chemicals and allied products	5.23	8.12	3.23	5.38	5.15	9.20
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.63	6.39	3.35	5.03	5.14	9.75
Explosives	3.78	5.94	2.30	5.00	5.08	17.19
Small-arms ammunition	9.17	12.80	3.57	5.65	5.52	7.54

¹ These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.

² Preliminary figures.

Footnotes to table 2 (previous page)—Continued.

² Preliminary figures.

² Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries.

⁴ Not available.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Year and month	Furniture and finished lumber products					Furniture, including mattresses and bedspreads						
	Total separation	Quit	Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	Total separation	Quit	Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession
1943												
December	8.41	6.03	0.82	1.00	0.47	7.72	8.65	6.32	0.86	0.90	0.45	8.05
1944												
January	9.93	7.63	.83	.93	.54	9.43	10.67	8.24	.92	.97	.54	9.75
February	9.06	6.91	.80	.85	.50	8.14	9.52	7.45	.85	.72	.50	8.54
March	10.22	8.07	.67	.67	.81	8.46	10.72	8.54	.74	.63	.81	9.75
April	9.92	7.93	.72	.53	.75	8.61	10.42	8.54	.78	.33	.77	8.58

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, July 1944

BUILDING construction started in urban areas of the United States during July was valued at \$88,000,000, or 24 percent less than in June. Both Federal and non-Federal building construction declined by 40 and 18 percent, respectively. The value of new residential building begun was one-fourth less and the value of new nonresidential building started was 38 percent lower than in June, while the volume of additions, alterations, and repairs remained unchanged.

The 17-percent drop in valuation for all urban building construction started between July 1943 and July 1944 was the result of a 49-percent decrease in the volume of Federal construction contracts awarded. Permit valuations for non-Federal construction were slightly higher than in July of last year. Both Federal and non-Federal new residential building were substantially lower than in July 1943, having dropped nearly two-thirds and one-third, respectively. New non-Federal nonresidential building, on the other hand, was almost twice the July 1943 total, while Federal nonresidential building fell off almost one-half. Both Federal and non-Federal additions, alterations, and repairs increased sharply.

Comparison of July 1944 With June 1944 and July 1943

The volume of building construction in urban areas in June and July 1944 and July 1943 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, July 1944

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	July 1944	Percent of change from—		July 1944 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		June 1944	July 1943		June 1944	July 1943
All building construction	62,895	-6.6	+6.8	\$88,227	-24.0	-16.7
New residential	7,675	-24.8	-37.5	27,818	-35.0	-39.4
New nonresidential	8,724	+15.1	+23.3	30,956	-37.7	-17.4
Additions, alterations, and repairs	46,496	-6.3	+17.6	29,453	+.3	+30.5

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which building permits were issued or Federal contracts awarded during July 1944 and their valuation are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, July 1944

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation	
	July 1944	Percent of change from—		July 1944 (in thou- sands)	Percent of change from—
		June 1944	July 1943		
All dwellings.....	8,445	-27.8	-42.9	\$27,351	-25.1
Privately financed.....					
1-family.....	7,646	-23.3	-31.0	23,687	-25.2
2-family ¹	6,537	-13.5	-12.8	20,175	-14.6
Multifamily ²	302	-71.9	-72.2	1,303	-72.2
Federally financed.....	717	-30.1	-67.1	2,149	-30.1
	799	-53.8	-78.5	3,664	-24.6

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 7 Months of 1943 and 1944

Permit valuations and contract values of all building construction as reported in the first 7 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 7 Months of 1943 and 1944

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total construction			Federal construction		
	First 7 months of—		Per- cent of change	First 7 months of—		Per- cent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All construction.....	658,068	752,312	-12.5	204,442	304,298	-30.1
New residential.....	227,268	345,539	-34.2	83,856	143,219	-44.4
New nonresidential.....	257,370	286,548	-10.2	162,887	240,227	-32.2
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	173,430	120,225	+44.3	7,697	10,833	-30.1

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and Federal contracts awarded during the first 7 months of 1944 are compared with similar data for 1943 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 7 Months of 1943 and 1944

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 7 months of—		Percent of change	First 7 months of—		Percent of change
	1944	1943		1944	1943	
All dwellings.....	73,583	128,199	-42.6	223,394	334,741	-33.3
Privately financed.....						
1-family.....	60,994	66,006	-7.6	192,292	201,722	-4.7
2-family ¹	46,771	44,649	+4.8	147,535	145,531	+1.4
Multifamily ²	6,295	8,661	-27.3	21,544	23,370	-7.8
Federally financed.....	7,928	12,696	-37.6	23,213	32,831	-28.3
	12,589	62,193	-79.8	31,032	133,019	-76.7

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, July 1944

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during June and July 1944 and July 1943 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partly from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes construction both inside and outside the corporate limit of cities in urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed From Federal Funds, July 1944*

Source of Federal funds	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	July 1944 ¹	June 1944 ²	July 1943 ³
All Federal funds	\$172,403	\$239,322	\$384,136
War Public Works	5,737	9,722	5,668
Regular Federal Appropriations	162,478	222,296	557,560
Federal Public Housing Authority	4,193	7,304	20,908

¹ Preliminary; subject to revision.

² Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States, which by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more, and by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning volume, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and from the value of contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits, which were received in July 1944 for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country, provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at \$20,584,000 in July 1944, \$34,091,000 in June 1944, and \$40,289,000 in July 1943.

Trend of Employment, Earnings, and Hours

Summary of Reports for July 1944

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,607,000 in July, 136,000 less than in June, and a million and a third less than in July 1943. The decline during the month reflects an employment drop of more than 50,000 each in the manufacturing, trade, and government divisions. The decrease in manufacturing was caused by large declines in almost all war industries, while the drop in both trade and government was due to seasonal factors.

Industrial and Business Employment

Wage-earner employment in all manufacturing industries declined 66,000 in spite of an increase of 29,000 in the nondurable group. All but one of the major groups contributed to the decline of almost 100,000 in the durable-goods group as a whole. More than half of this took place in the transportation equipment group and was about equally divided between the shipbuilding and aircraft industries.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group¹

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)				Wage earner index (1939 = 100)	
	July ² 1944	June 1944	May 1944	July 1943	July ² 1944	June 1944
All manufacturing.....	12,923	12,989	13,024	13,911	157.8	158.5
Durable goods.....	7,728	7,823	7,883	8,296	214.0	208.6
Nondurable goods.....	5,195	5,166	5,141	5,615	113.4	112.8
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,656	1,600	1,656	1,715	167.0	167.4
Electrical machinery.....	720	729	731	714	277.9	261.4
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,165	1,181	1,182	1,251	220.5	225.5
Transportation equipment except automobiles.....	2,025	2,079	2,137	2,306	1275.8	1306.8
Automobiles.....	671	687	696	694	166.7	170.7
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	383	385	388	414	167.0	168.1
Lumber and timber basic products.....	438	429	425	484	104.2	103.0
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	339	339	336	360	103.3	104.4
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	331	334	332	358	112.9	113.7
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,091	1,105	1,111	1,219	95.4	96.5
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	749	773	769	833	94.9	97.9
Leather and leather products.....	308	308	307	330	99.8	98.8
Food.....	1,042	975	944	1,019	121.9	134.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	83	84	82	89	80.3	88.5
Paper and allied products.....	305	303	303	316	114.9	114.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	334	331	329	339	101.9	100.8
Chemicals and allied products.....	596	685	593	745	203.3	202.8
Products of petroleum and coal.....	132	132	130	126	125.1	124.4
Rubber products.....	189	191	193	192	156.7	157.8
Miscellaneous industries.....	376	379	380	407	153.8	154.8

¹ The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency.

² Preliminary figures.

Declines of 16,000 each were reported by the automobile and machinery groups. Employment in both has been going down since November. The decline between June and July in each of these is greater than the average monthly decline since November.

The increase of 29,000 in the nondurable-goods group occurred in spite of a sizable seasonal decline of 24,000 in apparel and a decrease of 14,000 in the textile group owing to the difficulty of recruiting labor. The food group reported an increase of 67,000 workers, most of whom were added to the canning industry for seasonal work.

Employment in bituminous-coal mining was 355,000, only slightly below the May level. The stabilization of employment in this industry over the past 3 months was brought about by the issuance on May 1 of 90-day draft deferments for coal miners 22 to 25 years of age.

Public Employment

Employment increases in the War and Navy Departments, totaling 50,000 in July 1944, reflected increased activity connected with the European invasion. Increases in agencies other than war agencies, which totaled 9,000 in July, represented increased seasonal activity for the Agriculture and Interior Departments, and increased work resulting from the war for the Post Office and Commerce Departments and Federal Security Agency. These increases brought total employment in the Federal executive service to 3,376,000, or 84,000 higher than a year ago.

The downward trend which has been evident in employment on Federal ship-construction contracts since November 1943 continued in July 1944, with a decline of 20,000. Employment on ship construction and repair in the navy yards also declined during the month by 5,000 persons. The corresponding net declines over the previous year were 151,000 and 7,000. It should be pointed out, however, that in spite of these employment declines, production has been maintained or even increased for some types of vessels. Almost 70 percent of the total employment on ship construction and repair projects in July 1944 was concentrated in the Pacific and North Atlantic shipbuilding regions.

A slightly downward movement was evident in employment on all construction projects financed from Federal funds, except reclamation projects which showed a seasonal increase of 200. The net decline of 5,400 from June to July brought total employment on all Federally financed construction projects to 188,000, or 409,000 lower than a year ago. Employment on war production facilities financed from RFC funds declined by 3,800 during the month, and brought total employment on these projects to 37,000.

Greater summer activity was responsible for the estimated increase of 3,400 and 4,400 employees, respectively, on new construction and maintenance of State roads financed wholly from State and local funds. Employment on new construction remained lower than the level of a year ago, while that on maintenance work went higher. The shift in the importance of the two types of projects probably indicates stringency in the procurement of materials and a backlog of imperative repair jobs.

TABLE 2.—Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services, July 1944

(Subject to revision)

Service	Employment			Pay rolls		
	July 1944	June 1944	July 1943	July 1944	June 1944	July 1943
Executive ¹	3,375,980	3,317,422	3,262,232	\$723,301,000	\$711,083,000	\$706,078,000
War agencies ²	2,546,663	2,495,820	2,472,884	557,971,000	547,009,000	542,082,000
Continental United States	2,103,500	2,060,560	2,133,369	(5)	(5)	(5)
Outside continental United States ³	442,863	436,140	269,515	(5)	(5)	(5)
Other agencies	829,317	820,602	819,348	165,830,000	164,074,000	164,017,000
Continental United States	814,428	805,662	804,132	(5)	(5)	(5)
Outside continental United States ⁴	14,880	14,940	15,216	(5)	(5)	(5)
Judicial	2,063	2,679	2,624	780,758	781,682	781,465
Legislative	6,256	6,154	6,163	1,494,010	1,494,574	1,507,884

¹ Includes employees in United States navy yards and on temporary construction work who are also included under construction projects. Pay rolls for June and July 1944 are estimated.

² Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Selective Service System, Petroleum Administration for War, War Refugee Board, and Committee for Congested Production Areas.

³ Break-down not available.

⁴ Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.

TABLE 3.—Employment and Pay Rolls on Federally Financed Construction and Shipbuilding and Repair Projects¹ and on Locally Financed State Road Projects, July 1944

[In thousands]

Program and type of project	Employment			Pay rolls		
	July 1944 ²	June 1944	July 1943	July 1944 ²	June 1944	July 1943
<i>Federal</i>						
Shipbuilding and repair						
United States navy yards ³	1,562,8	1,587,6	1,720,5	\$435,998	\$442,917	\$446,987
Private shipyards	326,1	331,2	333,1	88,586	90,987	87,462
Construction:	1,236,7	1,256,4	1,387,4	346,412	351,980	358,085
Financed from Federal appropriations ^{4,5}	187,6	193,0	596,7	35,714	36,661	107,389
Airports	19,9	19,9	82,5	3,363	3,358	14,670
Buildings						
Residential	26,7	27,1	92,1	5,736	5,830	17,281
Nonresidential	78,1	80,2	261,9	14,493	14,873	30,080
Electrification	3	5	7	67	104	55
Reclamation	14,5	14,3	21,9	3,172	3,128	4,221
River, harbor, and flood control	20,3	21,0	30,1	3,961	4,066	6,180
Streets and highways	17,0	17,6	37,4	2,958	3,087	6,674
Water and sewer systems	5,1	5,6	9,6	809	892	1,080
Miscellaneous	3,7	6,8	60,5	1,113	1,323	7,386
Financed from R. F. C. funds	36,6	40,4	186,1	8,164	9,003	41,882
<i>State</i> ⁶						
New road construction	19,5	16,1	26,8	(5)	(5)	(5)
Road maintenance	99,0	94,6	97,7	(5)	(5)	(5)

¹ Data are for continental United States exclusive of Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone. Employment data represent the weekly average; pay-roll data for construction projects are for the calendar month; pay-roll data for shipbuilding and repair are for the fiscal month.

² Preliminary.

³ Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay, Maryland Coast Guard yard.

⁴ Includes the following force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government: July 1943, 61,190; June 1944, 27,249; July 1944, 27,520. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service; all other workers were employed by contractors or subcontractors.

⁵ Data for July 1944 partially estimated.

⁶ Data not available.

Data for the legislative and judicial services are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics and data for the executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission. For most agencies

the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction and shipbuilding and repair projects, financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, directly from the shipyards and construction contractors. For projects of the War Department and Federal Public Housing Authority, however, reports are received through the headquarters of the respective agencies, and for State road projects through the Public Roads Administration.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data is shown in table 2 for the regular Federal services. Table 3 shows data for construction and total shipbuilding and repair projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and for State road projects financed wholly from State or local funds, while table 4 shows data for shipbuilding and repair projects by region. It should be noted that data for employees located outside continental United States are included in the figures for the regular Federal services but are excluded from those for construction and shipbuilding and repair projects. Federal workers who receive either \$1 a year or month or no compensation whatever for their services are excluded.

TABLE 4.—*Total Employment in United States Navy Yards and Private Shipyards, by Region, July 1944*

Region	Employment (in thousands)			Percent of change	
	July 1944 ¹	June 1944	July 1943	June to July 1944	July 1943 to July 1944
Total—All regions.	1,562.8	1,587.6	1,720.5	-1.6	-9.2
United States navy yards ² .	326.1	331.2	335.1	-1.5	-2.1
Private shipyards.	1,236.7	1,256.4	1,387.4	-1.6	-10.9
North Atlantic.	563.0	577.3	624.0	-2.5	-9.8
South Atlantic.	137.4	139.5	158.2	-1.5	-13.2
Gulf.	215.6	220.3	231.6	-2.1	-6.9
Pacific.	522.0	523.5	592.9	-3	-12.0
Great Lakes.	65.6	68.6	65.8	-4.4	.3
Inland.	59.2	58.4	48.0	+1.4	+23.3

¹Preliminary.

²Includes all navy yards constructing or repairing ships, including the Curtis Bay, Maryland Coast Guard yard.



Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, June 1944

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

REVISED estimates of employment in nonagricultural establishments are shown in table 1. Revisions have been made in the estimates for the manufacturing, mining, and transportation divisions from January 1941 to date, and in the trade, construction, government, and service divisions from January 1939 to date. For the most part the changes were necessary to bring the series into closer agreement with trends indicated by unemployment compensation data. Comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to March 1944 were published in the July issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on unemployment-compensation data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, Bureau of the Census, and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance. The estimates include all wage and salaried workers in nonagricultural establishments but exclude military personnel, proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic servants.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are published each month in a detailed report on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division¹*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
Total estimated employment ²	38,743	38,684	38,689	38,899
Manufacturing ³	16,087	16,128	16,309	16,938
Mining	840	839	844	889
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	680	686	683	1,228
Transportation and public utilities	3,800	3,768	3,744	3,636
Trade	6,974	6,962	6,968	6,982
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,466	4,369	4,236	4,171
Federal, State and local government, excluding Federal force account construction	5,896	5,932	5,905	5,962

¹ The Bureau's estimates of nonagricultural employment have been revised back to January 1939. Complete monthly series and an analysis of these are available in a mimeographed release (LS 44-3862) replacing (LS 44-3862), "Revised Estimates of Employment in Nonagricultural Establishments in the United States, 1939-1944" which may be had upon request. Previously published estimate for March 1944 has been revised to 38,725.

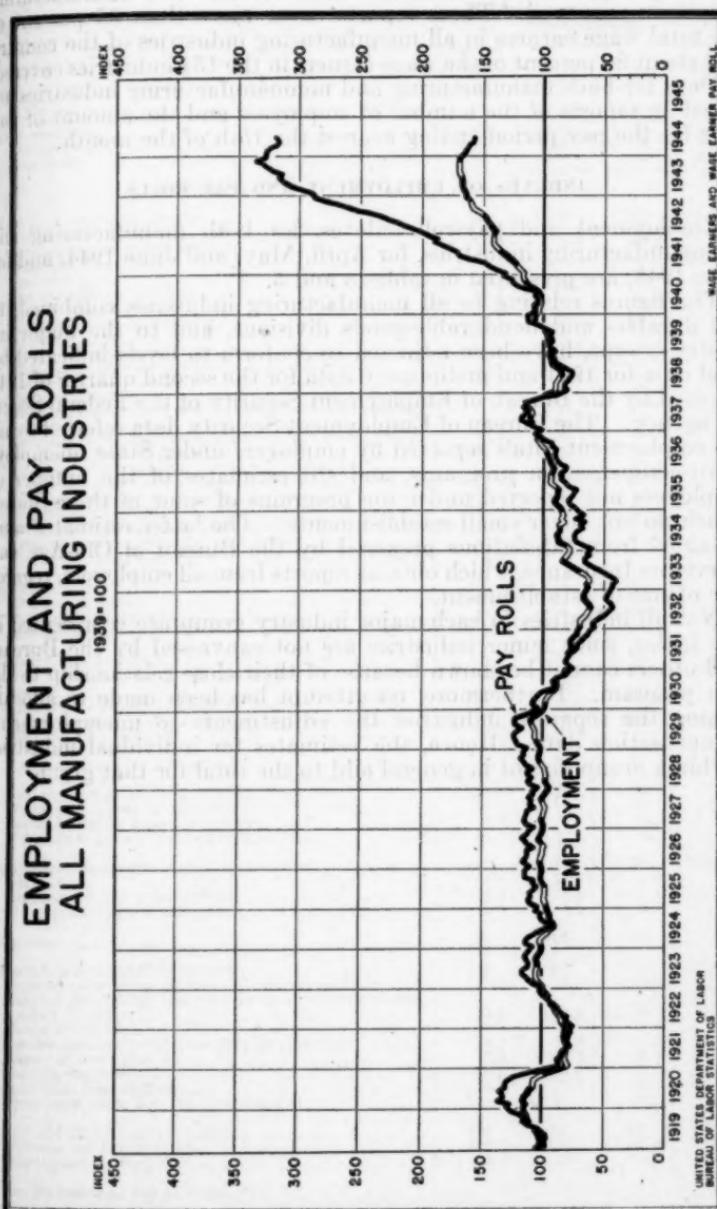
² Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

³ Previously published estimate for March 1944 has been revised to 16,559.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 154 manufacturing industries and for 15 nonmanufacturing industries, including water transportation and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and non-manufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and cleaning and dyeing, cover wage earners only; but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from about 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, cleaning and dyeing, and insurance, to about 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.



The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 154 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 154 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries, for April, May, and June 1944, and for June 1943, are presented in tables 3 and 5.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers, regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustments to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group do not in general add to the total for that group.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
All manufacturing	12,989	13,024	13,173	13,327
Durable goods	7,823	7,883	7,978	8,252
Nondurable goods	5,166	5,141	5,195	5,575
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products	1,660	1,656	1,664	1,719
Blow furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	481.8	481.5	483.5	521.2
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	73.1	73.4	74.6	81.9
Malleable-iron castings	24.6	24.6	26.0	26.8
Steel castings	74.5	75.6	76.9	83.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.2	15.0	15.0	16.6
Tin cans and other tinware	39.8	37.5	36.2	33.0
Wire drawn from purchased rods	33.4	33.5	33.7	36.6
Wirework	35.0	34.6	33.9	32.8
Cutlery and edge tools	23.0	22.9	22.6	21.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27.6	27.7	28.1	28.1
Hardware	45.6	45.8	46.6	45.7
Plumber's supplies	22.9	23.0	23.4	22.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	63.0	61.7	61.2	55.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	56.3	56.7	56.9	59.9
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	98.8	98.5	99.1	99.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	76.2	76.2	75.4	69.4
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	13.1	13.2	13.0	12.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	26.6	27.0	27.6	28.2
Fittings, iron and steel	36.5	37.4	38.4	40.4
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	26.4	26.2	26.8	26.9
Screw-machine products and wood screws	45.8	46.4	46.8	50.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.4	6.6	7.1	8.1
Electrical machinery	729	731	739	703
Electrical equipment	456.0	455.1	459.1	461.5
Radio and phonographs ³	128.6	128.9	130.4	113.2
Communication equipment ³	112.5	115.0	116.8	108.2
Machinery, except electrical	1,181	1,182	1,195	1,251
Machinery and machine-shop products	471.0	472.6	475.6	492.5
Tractors	60.0	59.7	59.9	56.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	45.8	45.2	45.6	37.8
Machine tools	78.5	79.1	80.4	114.5
Machine-tool accessories	68.7	69.5	71.0	90.6
Textile machinery	27.2	27.6	27.8	28.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	81.1	80.7	82.4	77.2
Typewriters	11.1	11.2	11.5	11.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	33.4	33.1	33.4	34.8
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	13.7	13.5	13.7	13.5
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	9.3	9.3	9.3	10.5
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	53.1	52.8	52.9	53.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,079	2,137	2,175	2,288
Locomotives	36.1	36.4	36.3	33.3
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	58.3	58.5	59.1	62.6
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.5	9.3	9.1	9.7
Automobiles	687	696	710	676
Nonferrous metals and their products	385	388	393	415
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	49.4	51.0	52.2	56.8
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	70.3	71.5	71.8	75.7
Clocks and watches	25.3	24.8	24.8	25.1
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	14.1	14.2	14.3	16.3
Silverware and plated ware	10.6	10.4	10.5	11.9
Lighting equipment	26.2	25.3	25.0	23.8
Aluminum manufactures	74.6	76.1	78.4	75.4
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	32.2	31.7	31.8	30.4
Lumber and timber basic products	429	425	426	482
Sawmills and logging camps	235.4	232.5	231.5	264.1
Planing and plywood mills	72.1	72.6	74.3	81.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹
Continued

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Furniture and finished lumber products.	339	336	341	328
Mattresses and bedsprings.	16.6	16.4	15.9	13.2
Furniture.	157.7	155.9	150.4	157.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.	28.1	28.1	28.1	26.5
Caskets and other morticians' goods.	12.7	12.4	12.4	12.2
Wood preserving.	10.0	9.8	9.8	10.4
Wood, turned and shaped.	21.1	21.2	21.7	22.0
Stone, clay, and glass products.	334	332	335	300
Glass and glassware.	92.7	91.6	92.6	86.5
Glass products made from purchased glass.	10.3	10.4	10.4	11.2
Cement.	17.1	17.0	17.2	16.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.	42.7	42.3	43.2	41.5
Pottery and related products.	41.6	41.2	41.6	42.9
Gypsum.	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.8
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.	9.4	9.2	9.3	11.8
Lime.	8.2	8.4	8.4	9.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.	12.7	12.4	12.4	12.3
Abrasives.	21.7	21.5	21.7	20.7
Asbestos products.	20.5	20.8	21.2	22.1
<i>Non durable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.	1,105	1,111	1,129	1,203
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.	435.8	437.9	445.3	487.8
Cotton smallwares.	13.4	13.5	13.8	17.0
Silk and rayon goods.	89.5	89.6	91.4	94.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.	151.3	152.1	155.0	168.0
Hosiery.	107.5	107.1	107.2	117.0
Knitted cloth.	10.6	10.8	11.0	11.9
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.	29.6	30.0	30.4	32.2
Knitted underwear.	36.1	36.1	36.7	42.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.	60.2	62.4	63.0	65.5
Carpets and rugs, wool.	20.3	20.3	20.4	21.2
Hats, fur-felt.	9.4	9.5	9.5	10.0
Jute goods, except felts.	3.3	3.3	3.3	4.0
Cordage and twine.	15.4	15.7	16.1	17.2
Apparel and other finished textile products.	773	769	784	858
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.	213.2	212.7	214.2	231.0
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.	53.7	53.4	54.1	60.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's.	12.2	12.4	12.5	13.0
Work shirts.	15.3	15.4	15.5	18.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.	216.6	213.4	221.4	238.6
Corsets and allied garments.	15.3	15.3	15.3	16.4
Military.	16.9	18.6	19.4	17.0
Handkerchiefs.	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.7
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.	13.3	13.0	12.8	17.0
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	10.5	9.6	9.6	14.5
Textile bags.	14.3	14.5	14.9	14.5
Leather and leather products.	308	307	310	333
Leather.	40.3	40.4	40.7	44.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.	16.3	16.2	16.4	17.3
Boots and shoes.	174.9	173.8	175.2	184.2
Leather gloves and mittens.	12.8	12.9	13.2	14.1
Trunks and suitcases.	11.8	11.6	12.2	14.1
Food.	975	944	941	965
Slaughtering and meat packing.	157.7	154.6	156.2	160.5
Butter.	25.3	25.9	22.7	22.7
Condensed and evaporated milk.	16.1	14.8	13.6	14.6
Ice cream.	17.5	15.6	14.6	17.2
Flour.	28.0	27.6	27.9	27.9
Feeds, prepared.	19.8	19.8	19.9	22.1
Cereal preparations.	9.3	9.3	9.4	10.1
Baking.	257.4	253.9	255.0	251.2
Sugar refining, cane.	14.6	14.5	14.0	14.2
Sugar, beet.	4.2	4.4	4.1	4.7
Confectionery.	56.4	56.6	57.8	52.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic.	20.6	27.9	26.9	26.4
Malt liquors.	50.7	50.1	48.3	46.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry ²	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food—Continued.				
Canning and preserving.	110.8	99.9	99.6	100.1
Tobacco manufactures.	84	82	84	89
Cigarettes.	34.3	33.3	33.6	32.2
Cigars.	36.2	36.2	37.1	43.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.	7.7	7.7	7.5	8.1
Paper and allied products.	303	303	306	316
Paper and pulp.	146.0	144.9	145.9	150.4
Paper goods, other.	46.1	46.8	47.4	48.2
Envelopes.	9.6	9.7	9.8	10.5
Paper bags.	13.2	13.4	13.6	12.1
Paper boxes.	79.0	79.2	80.3	84.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.	331	329	332	334
Newspapers and periodicals.	110.4	110.0	110.3	113.6
Printing, book and job.	131.6	130.9	132.6	130.4
Lithographing.	25.0	24.6	25.0	25.2
Bookbinding.	28.2	28.3	28.9	29.5
Chemicals and allied products.	585	592	602	743
Paints, varnishes, and colors.	29.9	29.9	29.8	29.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.	50.6	51.0	51.9	45.8
Perfumes and cosmetics.	10.9	11.2	11.0	11.0
Soap.	13.5	13.5	13.6	12.9
Rayon and allied products.	52.3	51.7	52.0	52.4
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.	119.5	120.0	120.2	115.6
Compressed and liquefied gases.	6.2	6.1	6.0	6.3
Cottonseed oil.	11.8	13.4	15.4	12.7
Fertilizers.	19.5	22.6	26.2	19.2
Products of petroleum and coal.	132	130	128	125
Petroleum refining.	88.7	87.4	85.9	80.8
Coke and byproducts.	23.0	22.9	22.9	25.2
Paving materials.	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7
Roofing materials.	9.6	9.6	9.7	9.4
Rubber products.	191	193	195	189
Rubber tires and inner tubes.	89.2	90.1	91.6	85.0
Rubber boots and shoes.	20.0	20.7	20.1	22.2
Rubber goods, other.	72.3	72.9	74.0	72.7
Miscellaneous industries.	379	380	384	407
Photographic apparatus.	20.2	20.2	20.2	29.7
Pianos, organs, and parts.	6.8	7.9	8.5	10.0
Games, toys, and dolls.	15.9	15.4	15.7	15.8
Buttons.	9.6	9.7	10.1	10.8
Fire extinguishers.	5.8	6.1	6.5	7.9

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1930 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized U. S. Government agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

³ Comparable data for January 1939 through December 1943 available upon request.

Radio and phonographs.—Comparable wage-earner data for January through March 1944 are 131.2, 133.7, and 132.3.

Communication equipment.—Comparable wage-earner data for January through March 1944 are 118.8, 119.8, and 120.2.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average=100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
	158.6	159.0	160.8	168.8	318.3	317.8	318.2	317.1
All manufacturing	158.6	159.0	160.8	168.8	318.3	317.8	318.2	317.1
Durable goods	216.6	218.3	220.9	228.5	443.1	444.7	447.9	441.0
Nondurable goods	112.8	112.2	113.4	121.7	196.3	193.8	191.4	186.4
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products	167.4	167.0	167.8	173.4	311.0	308.6	308.0	304.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	124.0	124.0	125.0	134.2	224.5	221.1	221.2	222.8
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	125.2	125.7	127.7	140.1	248.9	240.4	246.7	240.8
Malleable-iron castings	136.6	136.5	138.4	148.7	280.5	276.0	275.5	275.5
Steel castings	247.4	251.4	255.7	278.9	452.4	461.4	463.1	468.5
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	91.7	91.0	91.0	100.4	174.6	176.0	173.6	178.6
Tin cans and other tinware	126.3	118.2	114.0	103.8	206.6	198.5	188.7	186.2
Wire drawn from purchased rods	151.9	152.3	155.6	166.3	260.8	252.7	249.1	239.8
Wirework	115.3	113.8	111.6	107.9	227.7	225.0	219.6	204.4
Cutlery and edge tools	149.5	148.3	146.3	138.2	310.8	305.5	304.3	274.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	180.0	180.9	183.3	183.7	339.2	333.9	349.4	336.0
Hardware	128.1	128.4	130.8	128.1	203.3	200.4	200.0	196.0
Plumber's supplies	92.9	93.5	94.8	92.7	170.6	168.6	170.4	160.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	136.6	133.8	132.7	116.8	258.8	252.5	248.3	198.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	185.8	187.2	187.9	197.7	346.1	333.7	351.8	362.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	159.0	153.0	160.4	161.6	322.7	313.0	312.7	308.5
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work	214.4	214.4	212.1	196.3	420.7	435.2	414.8	392.0
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	169.0	170.1	168.5	184.4	313.3	317.9	325.8	327.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	186.1	186.5	185.2	208.8	367.4	360.6	372.8	377.1
Forgings, iron and steel	237.5	243.0	249.5	263.1	466.0	472.3	487.0	466.6
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	314.9	313.3	314.5	321.6	614.7	605.6	602.0	598.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	270.4	274.0	276.6	297.6	527.4	526.3	526.6	547.1
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	105.5	108.7	116.3	133.8	208.9	214.1	223.0	204.4
Electrical machinery	261.4	282.1	285.2	271.1	507.5	501.0	502.0	469.0
Electrical equipment	262.3	251.8	264.0	255.3	464.6	454.4	458.4	445.1
Radios and phonographs ³	295.4	296.2	299.7	290.0	559.6	551.5	555.7	561.0
Communication equipment ³	370.2	358.0	363.6	336.8	592.9	562.7	565.6	490.6
Machinery, except electrical	223.5	223.7	226.1	226.7	425.0	424.0	424.2	425.0
Machinery and machine-shop products	232.8	233.6	235.1	243.4	434.5	431.5	429.5	431.1
Tractors	191.9	191.0	191.4	161.8	304.0	298.0	297.9	297.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	164.5	162.4	164.0	135.9	336.3	332.5	334.4	324.5
Machine tools	214.4	216.0	219.4	312.8	383.8	381.3	383.8	393.3
Machine-tool accessories	273.0	276.4	282.1	360.1	474.6	470.9	461.4	467.4
Textile machinery	124.1	125.8	127.0	126.3	230.2	227.3	226.6	226.2
Pumps and pumping equipment	334.5	333.0	339.9	318.5	715.7	702.8	704.9	674.7
Typewriters	66.7	69.0	70.7	73.1	141.0	140.2	141.7	143.8
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	169.5	167.9	169.9	177.0	334.3	329.7	335.0	342.1
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	184.0	180.6	183.8	181.3	329.9	322.0	322.0	288.8
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	119.0	119.1	118.4	134.3	259.8	258.5	255.2	266.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	151.2	150.1	150.6	152.9	271.5	266.9	266.0	254.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1309.6	1346.2	1370.1	1441.6	2601.0	2775.1	2798.0	2798.0
Locomotives	558.6	562.7	561.2	514.3	1265.9	1261.9	1260.1	1272.8
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	237.6	238.4	240.8	255.2	480.3	483.0	477.1	471.7
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	136.0	133.2	130.1	139.2	249.7	245.3	236.7	230.4
Automobiles	170.7	173.1	176.6	167.9	317.6	318.1	330.0	303.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	168.1	169.1	171.5	180.9	315.9	314.8	318.3	323.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	178.7	184.6	189.1	205.6	336.9	342.1	345.2	336.7
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	181.1	184.2	184.9	195.0	340.3	339.9	340.4	354.5
Clocks and watches	124.9	122.4	122.4	123.9	260.1	253.2	246.6	238.4
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	97.4	98.3	99.0	113.2	160.0	160.6	161.3	170.7
Silverware and plated ware	86.9	86.0	86.7	98.1	159.0	155.8	154.4	171.4
Lighting equipment	127.9	123.4	122.0	116.2	231.3	222.4	217.6	203.5
Aluminum manufactures	316.7	323.2	333.0	320.3	566.5	570.1	584.5	567.2
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	172.0	169.2	169.7	161.8	317.8	314.3	319.9	284.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry ¹	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>								
Lumber and timber basic products								
Lumber and timber basic products	102.0	101.2	101.4	114.8	103.9	106.9	104.5	200.8
Gawmills and logging camps	81.7	80.7	80.4	91.7	159.3	152.1	149.1	163.8
Planing and plywood mills	99.2	99.9	102.2	112.8	171.6	169.9	171.3	151.1
Furniture and finished lumber products								
Mattresses and bedsprings	103.4	102.5	103.9	109.1	187.5	184.4	182.7	181.1
Furniture	90.3	89.7	88.8	99.0	155.9	154.6	144.5	156.6
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	99.0	97.9	100.1	105.1	177.9	175.7	175.7	174.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods	110.9	111.0	110.7	116.3	220.4	214.7	209.7	201.4
Wood preserving	102.4	99.9	99.5	97.6	173.7	168.8	165.5	153.9
Wood, turned and shaped	88.8	87.1	87.4	92.6	190.9	177.3	174.9	175.9
Glass, clay, and glass products	95.8	96.4	98.5	100.1	172.8	171.6	171.2	167.1
Glass and glassware	113.7	112.9	114.3	122.5	180.8	187.7	187.3	180.6
Glass products made from purchased glass	132.8	131.2	132.6	126.7	209.7	208.4	208.7	185.2
Cement	103.2	103.7	103.6	111.6	168.1	170.1	168.8	163.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	71.7	71.2	72.3	102.3	110.6	108.7	107.8	146.3
Pottery and related products	75.2	74.5	76.0	90.8	122.8	118.9	117.3	137.8
Gypsum	125.5	124.6	125.7	129.4	196.3	192.5	193.2	190.4
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	82.9	85.6	87.4	93.4	145.4	144.9	148.3	163.2
Lime	116.1	113.0	114.9	143.2	211.5	195.5	207.7	231.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	86.2	88.4	89.3	101.1	170.4	174.2	171.9	176.3
Abrasives	68.7	67.6	66.7	66.4	104.5	101.5	98.4	89.0
Asbestos products	280.5	278.3	280.7	306.3	459.3	468.2	461.2	498.8
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	96.6	97.2	98.7	107.8	172.5	171.2	170.0	178.7
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	110.0	110.6	112.5	123.2	204.7	202.4	201.3	211.3
Cotton smallwares	100.3	101.1	103.9	127.4	180.7	180.2	177.6	185.8
Silk and rayon goods	74.7	74.8	76.3	79.9	135.8	136.1	134.7	135.3
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	101.4	102.0	103.9	112.6	194.8	192.9	192.5	206.8
Hosiery	67.6	67.4	67.4	73.6	107.0	106.0	102.6	107.5
Knitted cloth	97.0	99.2	100.5	108.6	168.3	168.5	167.6	172.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	105.2	106.8	107.9	118.0	189.1	188.7	186.2	193.4
Knitted underwear	93.7	93.6	95.1	110.1	168.9	167.4	168.6	183.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	90.1	93.3	94.2	102.5	180.7	152.2	151.6	166.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	70.3	79.2	79.6	90.8	135.5	132.3	131.2	143.8
Hats, fur-felt	64.7	65.3	65.6	69.0	120.7	120.5	119.0	113.8
Jute goods, except felts	92.3	92.1	93.0	111.9	177.5	173.9	169.6	197.2
Condage and twine	127.0	130.1	133.0	141.8	232.6	236.8	240.2	236.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	97.9	97.4	96.3	108.0	166.2	163.0	161.3	161.7
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	97.5	97.3	97.9	105.6	166.2	166.4	168.2	159.1
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	76.3	75.8	76.8	85.9	134.5	134.4	130.3	138.2
Underwear and neckwear, men's	75.8	76.9	77.5	80.8	146.8	147.8	146.4	139.6
Work shirts	114.1	114.4	115.2	128.8	206.0	206.8	206.0	230.3
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	79.7	78.6	81.5	87.8	134.8	128.1	132.0	130.6
Comets and allied garments	81.5	81.6	81.5	87.4	141.2	139.6	136.4	137.5
Millinery	69.7	75.6	79.9	70.1	90.7	101.9	109.3	80.0
Handkerchiefs	61.8	62.2	64.3	76.5	109.6	114.8	108.4	123.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	78.7	76.5	76.6	100.5	157.0	144.4	134.9	162.7
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	94.4	90.7	90.2	126.8	179.4	159.0	153.0	234.5
Textile bags	119.3	121.2	124.4	130.8	192.1	192.9	194.8	180.4
Leather and leather products	88.8	88.4	88.4	96.0	155.9	153.5	152.3	150.8
Leather	85.3	85.5	82.2	97.9	145.2	146.8	147.0	149.0
Boots and shoe ent stock and findings	86.3	86.2	87.0	91.8	144.0	142.7	142.0	137.7
Boots and shoes	80.2	79.7	80.3	84.9	142.8	139.8	138.3	134.4
Leather gloves and mittens	128.6	129.4	131.6	144.8	215.2	218.8	221.0	227.0
Trunks and suitcases	141.6	139.8	146.9	169.9	232.4	233.2	220.1	265.1
Food	114.1	110.5	110.1	111.5	188.6	179.9	173.8	167.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	120.9	128.3	128.6	132.4	217.5	216.9	206.3	200.8
Butter	140.9	133.0	136.7	133.1	217.0	202.1	191.7	185.8
Condensed and evaporated milk	166.6	163.2	169.4	180.9	280.1	246.9	221.8	283.1
Ice cream	111.4	99.6	93.0	109.5	153.6	137.3	127.7	141.7
Flour	113.1	111.6	112.7	112.8	188.2	179.9	180.8	170.7
Feeds, prepared	128.4	128.5	129.0	143.7	221.0	221.2	213.4	230.7
Cereal preparations	125.0	128.4	126.1	135.4	219.4	216.5	210.4	218.6
Baking	111.6	110.1	110.5	108.9	166.8	163.8	159.9	151.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

[1939 average = 100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Food—Continued.								
Sugar refining, cane	103.3	102.7	98.7	101.2	166.3	162.7	153.2	141.4
Sugar, beet	40.1	42.1	39.6	45.6	62.7	60.5	58.5	56.5
Confectionery	113.6	113.7	116.1	105.2	185.8	183.3	183.4	188.7
Beverages, nonalcoholic	143.7	131.2	126.6	133.6	192.8	180.9	159.1	166.1
Malt liquors	140.5	138.9	133.8	129.8	210.7	201.9	192.1	188.8
Canning and preserving	82.4	74.3	74.1	81.2	157.0	143.2	141.2	137.2
Tobacco manufactures	88.5	88.3	89.5	95.7	157.9	152.0	142.8	148.1
Cigarettes	125.2	121.4	122.7	117.6	189.2	182.0	174.2	188.7
Cigars	71.2	71.1	79.9	85.1	141.9	137.9	133.0	147.8
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	83.8	84.5	81.7	88.1	124.1	122.0	114.8	126.7
Paper and allied products	114.2	114.2	115.4	119.0	187.0	184.7	183.6	186.9
Paper and pulp	106.2	105.4	106.2	109.4	180.5	177.2	178.1	172.9
Paper goods, other	122.5	124.3	125.9	127.9	194.1	194.6	194.9	188.1
Envelopes	110.6	111.3	112.3	121.0	171.0	166.1	166.2	173.9
Paper bags	119.5	120.9	122.8	109.0	198.3	197.1	200.6	172.9
Paper boxes	114.2	114.5	116.1	121.9	178.7	177.2	177.1	178.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	100.8	100.3	101.3	101.8	137.4	135.0	133.7	136.4
Newspapers and periodicals	93.1	92.7	92.9	95.7	117.1	116.1	113.8	123.0
Printing, book and job	104.1	103.6	104.9	103.2	140.3	144.8	144.4	131.4
Lithographing	98.1	94.5	95.1	96.8	137.3	132.9	130.1	135.1
Bookbinding	109.6	109.8	112.3	114.3	178.4	180.9	182.8	174.2
Chemicals and allied products	202.9	205.6	208.8	237.7	358.4	360.2	359.1	432.5
Paints, varnishes, and colors	106.4	106.3	106.1	106.1	160.1	167.2	163.9	168.6
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	184.6	186.1	189.3	167.0	206.7	207.0	207.8	228.8
Perfumes and cosmetics	103.4	107.7	106.5	105.9	150.2	153.0	152.8	143.0
Soap	99.2	99.4	100.0	94.8	168.3	163.6	165.0	166.1
Rayon and allied products	108.3	107.1	107.7	108.5	174.1	173.5	171.0	166.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	171.8	172.5	172.7	166.2	295.7	296.5	295.0	274.0
Compressed and liquefied gases	157.6	154.5	152.6	159.2	275.8	271.4	266.6	266.3
Cottonseed oil	77.9	88.3	101.5	83.3	148.8	170.2	168.9	149.0
Fertilizers	103.7	120.4	130.4	102.1	227.7	266.8	255.7	185.0
Products of petroleum and coal	124.4	122.8	121.1	118.5	215.7	212.6	206.6	187.5
Petroleum refining	121.8	120.0	117.9	111.0	207.5	205.2	199.6	175.2
Coke and byproducts	106.1	105.6	105.4	116.2	187.5	183.0	178.7	180.3
Paving materials	68.5	63.6	57.3	67.8	130.1	120.4	130.3	130.0
Roofing materials	118.7	119.5	119.9	116.5	216.4	212.2	207.4	187.1
Rubber products	157.8	159.7	161.4	166.4	279.0	280.8	278.8	264.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	164.8	166.5	169.3	157.1	278.5	280.0	280.0	288.5
Rubber boots and shoes	134.6	139.8	135.8	149.7	245.9	246.2	246.5	228.7
Rubber goods, other	139.8	140.8	143.0	140.5	251.2	248.3	249.0	261.0
Miscellaneous industries	154.8	155.1	157.0	166.3	297.3	295.8	296.7	286.2
Photographic apparatus	168.8	169.3	166.1	171.8	273.0	273.5	270.9	271.0
Pianos, organs, and parts	89.1	103.6	111.5	130.7	170.9	168.8	212.7	207.4
Games, toys, and dolls	85.1	82.6	84.0	84.4	167.2	155.5	160.1	148.1
Buttons	87.4	88.8	92.1	98.8	170.7	174.3	178.1	174.2
Fire extinguishers	578.2	616.2	656.8	795.6	1156.6	1202.9	1381.0	1478.5

¹ Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized U.S. Government agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines; ammunition; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; firearms; fireworks; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; and shipbuilding and boatbuilding.

³ Comparable indexes for January 1939 through December 1943 available upon request.

⁴ Radios and phonographs.—Comparable employment indexes for January through March 1944 are 301.5,

307.2, and 304.1; pay-roll indexes are 569.2, 576.1, and 570.4.

⁵ Communication equipment.—Comparable employment indexes for January through March 1944 are 370.0, 373.0, and 374.2; pay-roll indexes are 562.9, 578.0, and 579.8.

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
Coal mining:				
Anthracite	68.8	68.5	68.4	71.6
Bituminous	357	356	360	381
Metal mining:				
Iron	80.3	82.6	84.9	97.5
Copper	28.1	28.8	28.8	33.8
Lead and zinc	26.7	27.4	28.4	30.9
Gold and silver	16.1	16.8	17.7	18.7
Miscellaneous	5.7	5.8	6.1	7.3
Klectric light and power ¹	3.7	3.8	3.9	6.8
Street railways and busses ¹	203	202	203	211
Hotels (year-round) ¹	231	231	231	228
Power laundries	353	352	352	344
Cleaning and dyeing	254	249	247	270
Class I steam railroads ²	85.7	84.2	81.5	87.0
	1,447	1,425	1,413	1,383

¹ Data include salaried personnel.² Source—Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

[1939 average = 100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1943
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	83.0	82.7	82.6	86.5	151.8	155.8	142.3	90.3
Bituminous	96.2	96.0	97.1	102.7	219.0	215.5	214.2	142.9
Metal mining:								
Iron	91.1	93.6	96.2	110.5	145.7	148.5	152.5	172.0
Copper	139.4	142.4	142.8	167.9	226.2	229.4	229.2	271.0
Lead and zinc	112.1	115.1	118.8	129.7	183.1	187.7	191.4	212.6
Gold and silver	103.7	108.4	114.2	120.5	191.5	196.5	209.2	206.5
Miscellaneous	23.1	23.5	24.8	29.3	30.0	30.1	37.7	37.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	93.9	95.7	99.6	171.7	169.3	158.6	165.1	266.1
Crude-petroleum production ¹	85.8	84.5	84.1	98.8	162.2	157.4	150.0	169.5
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)
Electric light and power	83.1	82.8	83.1	86.5	114.8	112.9	112.9	107.7
Street railways and busses	119.1	119.1	119.2	117.7	169.9	165.5	164.9	156.0
Wholesale trade:								
Retail trade ² :								
Food ³	95.0	94.4	95.1	95.8	135.4	133.4	134.0	126.5
General merchandise	96.6	96.9	97.7	99.2	127.4	124.2	124.3	121.6
Apparel	106.3	107.3	106.9	107.1	139.7	134.2	133.6	132.5
Furniture and housefurnishings	107.7	108.5	110.9	112.7	136.4	132.4	134.6	133.3
Automotive	108.8	110.4	111.1	111.7	145.8	144.8	144.0	140.6
Lumber and building materials	63.6	63.2	63.3	67.5	88.4	86.3	85.5	87.5
Hotels (year-round) ⁴	91.1	90.2	89.1	92.3	127.6	127.9	124.2	123.0
Power laundries	109.4	109.0	109.2	106.7	157.2	155.3	154.5	137.4
Cleaning and dyeing	112.4	110.1	109.5	119.6	163.7	161.3	155.7	154.6
Class I steam railroads ²	126.9	124.8	120.7	128.9	195.7	194.2	179.9	182.5
Water transportation ⁵	146.5	144.3	143.1	140.0	(9)	(9)	(9)	(9)
	238.9	233.5	226.1	143.0	571.7	552.6	521.6	326.7

¹ Does not include well drilling or rig building.² Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.³ Revisions have been made as follows in indexes previously published:*Retail trade total*, pay-roll index, January 1944 to 122.2.*Food group*, pay-roll index, March 1944 to 134.5.⁴ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.⁵ Source—Interstate Commerce Commission.⁶ Not available.⁷ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

AVERAGE EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly earnings and hours and average hourly earnings for April, May, and June 1944, where available, are given in table 6 for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. The average weekly earnings for individual industries are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries
MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944
All manufacturing.....	\$46.28	\$46.03	\$45.55	45.5	45.3	45.0	101.8	101.7	101.3
Durable goods.....	52.16	51.90	51.67	46.9	46.7	46.5	111.3	111.2	111.0
Nondurable goods.....	37.36	37.03	36.16	43.4	43.1	42.5	86.2	85.8	85.0
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products.....	50.60	50.40	50.07	46.9	46.8	46.5	108.2	107.7	107.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	54.32	53.43	53.12	46.4	46.1	45.9	117.0	116.0	115.8
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	51.44	51.54	50.22	48.1	48.0	47.2	107.1	107.5	106.8
Malleable-iron castings.....	51.39	50.24	48.70	48.6	48.0	47.1	105.3	104.7	103.6
Steel castings.....	50.85	51.34	50.59	45.6	46.3	45.7	112.1	110.9	110.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	40.26	40.88	40.63	46.6	47.0	46.7	85.8	87.5	89.8
Tin cans and other tinware.....	38.88	38.99	39.04	44.5	44.4	44.2	37.4	37.8	38.1
Wirework.....	49.65	48.83	49.50	47.6	47.5	47.4	104.5	104.9	104.3
Cutlery and edge tools.....	43.99	44.06	44.05	46.3	46.6	46.9	95.0	94.5	93.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	45.66	45.43	46.11	47.1	47.3	47.6	96.8	96.2	96.9
Hardware.....	45.49	44.86	44.99	47.3	47.2	47.3	96.0	95.2	94.1
Plumbers' supplies.....	47.75	46.95	46.82	45.9	45.8	46.1	104.0	102.5	101.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	47.26	47.08	46.66	47.1	46.8	46.4	100.3	100.2	100.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	48.00	48.73	48.28	47.5	48.2	47.8	101.0	101.1	101.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	46.87	45.63	45.22	46.0	45.3	45.0	101.8	100.7	100.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	55.05	56.95	54.86	48.6	49.9	48.7	112.6	113.8	112.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	50.10	50.53	51.74	47.5	47.7	48.4	105.9	106.6	106.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	49.85	49.42	48.37	48.3	48.1	47.4	103.2	102.7	102.1
Forgings, iron and steel.....	58.64	58.20	58.33	47.6	47.5	47.5	123.3	122.7	122.9
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	50.12	49.61	49.20	49.0	48.5	48.3	103.0	102.4	102.1
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	43.11	42.86	42.05	43.7	43.7	42.8	98.4	98.1	98.2
Firearms.....	60.78	59.87	61.72	47.7	47.7	47.6	127.5	125.6	126.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>									
Electrical machinery	\$48.01	\$47.28	\$46.84	46.6	46.3	46.2	103.0	102.1	101.4
Electrical equipment	50.85	49.97	49.45	47.2	46.8	46.7	107.5	106.8	106.0
Radios and phonographs	41.68	40.75	40.47	45.8	45.7	45.5	90.5	89.2	89.0
Communication equipment	44.72	44.21	43.83	45.3	45.0	45.0	98.1	97.3	96.6
Machinery, except electrical	55.14	50.50	54.40	49.1	48.8	48.8	112.3	111.7	111.5
Machinery and machine-shop products	53.81	53.17	52.53	48.7	48.4	48.1	110.4	110.1	109.5
Engines and turbines	61.60	60.48	59.30	49.8	49.8	49.3	124.4	122.1	120.6
Tractors	53.47	52.67	52.54	47.4	46.7	46.7	112.9	112.7	112.5
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	54.03	54.13	53.74	48.4	48.4	48.1	111.5	111.9	111.8
Machine tools	57.60	56.59	56.54	50.9	50.8	50.7	113.1	112.1	111.4
Machine-tool accessories	59.68	58.59	58.78	50.2	49.6	49.9	119.0	118.2	118.0
Textile machinery	48.23	47.08	47.02	49.2	48.6	49.0	98.0	97.0	96.0
Typewriters	49.38	48.87	48.25	49.8	49.3	48.9	99.1	99.1	98.6
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	59.71	59.45	59.63	49.6	49.5	49.4	121.3	121.0	121.4
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	47.55	47.28	46.46	45.7	45.9	45.8	103.3	102.9	101.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	59.09	58.59	58.19	52.7	52.8	52.3	112.8	111.7	111.9
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	51.10	51.00	50.85	47.5	47.0	46.7	107.9	108.7	108.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	59.68	59.87	59.41	47.3	47.4	47.1	126.2	126.4	125.1
Locomotives	64.29	64.18	64.71	49.1	49.0	49.5	131.0	131.0	130.8
Cars, electric and steam-railroad	53.27	53.40	51.63	46.6	46.4	45.6	114.3	115.0	113.2
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	54.59	54.10	53.55	47.1	46.8	46.7	115.9	115.8	114.8
Aircraft engines	61.27	59.73	62.53	46.7	46.1	47.7	131.1	129.6	131.0
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	62.84	64.02	62.89	47.5	48.1	47.3	132.2	133.2	133.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	50.83	50.93	48.22	47.3	47.6	46.8	107.4	106.9	102.9
Automobiles	58.42	57.68	58.56	45.9	45.5	46.4	127.2	126.6	126.2
Numerous metals and their products	49.35	48.80	48.65	47.1	46.6	46.6	104.8	104.7	104.5
Smelting and refining, primary, of non-ferrous metals	50.08	49.27	48.97	46.9	46.4	46.1	106.8	106.1	106.2
Alloying and rolling and drawing of non-ferrous metals, except aluminum	53.80	52.93	52.88	48.5	47.6	47.7	111.5	111.2	111.0
Clocks and watches	45.67	43.38	42.75	46.8	46.7	46.7	93.6	93.0	91.7
Jewelry (precious metals) and jeweler's findings	42.76	42.52	42.24	44.9	44.7	44.9	98.5	93.5	92.9
Silverware and plated ware	48.03	47.63	46.86	47.3	46.9	46.3	101.6	101.7	101.4
Lighting equipment	47.61	47.35	46.73	46.1	45.8	45.5	103.0	103.5	102.8
Aluminum manufacturers	49.28	48.73	48.61	46.5	46.1	45.9	106.2	105.7	105.9
Lumber and timber basic products	35.57	34.55	34.05	44.6	43.4	43.2	79.8	79.6	78.8
Sawmills and logging camps	34.81	33.66	33.14	44.0	42.9	42.7	79.1	78.6	77.5
Planing and plywood mills	38.32	37.37	36.86	46.3	45.2	44.8	82.2	82.8	82.5
Furniture and finished lumber products	36.29	35.97	35.23	44.6	44.4	43.7	81.3	81.1	80.5
Furniture	36.60	36.65	35.93	44.4	44.3	43.6	83.3	83.2	82.7
Caskets and other morticians' goods	39.26	39.01	38.51	45.6	45.5	45.2	86.4	85.7	85.4
Wood preserving	34.32	32.57	32.02	44.8	43.4	42.2	76.7	75.1	75.9
Glass, clay, and glass products	39.16	38.98	38.45	43.9	43.7	43.2	89.3	89.2	89.1
Glass and glassware	39.43	39.59	39.18	42.1	42.4	41.9	93.4	93.5	93.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	34.09	34.34	33.64	43.7	44.2	44.1	78.0	77.6	77.0
Cement	41.34	40.98	39.99	44.8	44.7	43.9	92.3	91.6	91.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	33.54	32.83	31.70	42.8	41.6	40.5	78.2	78.1	77.9
Pottery and related products	36.13	35.82	35.72	41.9	41.5	41.8	87.5	86.8	86.5
Gypsum	45.44	43.84	43.93	45.8	48.3	48.1	93.2	90.8	91.3
Lime	38.98	38.86	38.11	49.9	49.8	48.3	78.4	78.1	78.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	39.88	40.47	38.92	44.4	44.7	43.3	90.0	90.5	89.9
Abrasives	46.08	47.33	46.22	46.5	47.6	46.5	99.2	99.4	99.4
Asbestos products	47.76	46.92	46.15	48.7	48.0	47.6	98.0	97.7	97.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufacturers	\$39.89	\$29.49	\$28.85	42.0	41.5	41.2	71.2	71.0	70.1
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	26.72	26.33	25.75	42.0	41.6	41.3	63.6	63.4	62.3
Cotton smallwares	33.87	33.40	31.96	43.7	43.7	42.6	77.7	76.5	75.1
Silk and rayon goods	29.12	29.13	28.27	42.1	41.8	41.1	69.2	69.7	68.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	36.05	35.50	34.79	42.7	42.2	41.6	84.5	84.2	83.7
Hosiery	28.91	28.61	27.84	38.4	38.1	37.5	75.3	75.2	74.3
Knitted cloth	32.11	31.82	31.31	43.9	43.4	42.9	72.8	72.5	72.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	30.22	29.71	29.00	40.5	39.8	39.5	73.4	73.0	72.4
Knitted underwear	26.62	26.37	26.18	40.7	40.4	40.1	64.6	64.5	64.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	34.73	33.85	33.47	45.5	44.7	44.5	76.2	75.6	75.1
Carpets and rugs, wool	39.44	38.52	38.11	43.6	42.9	42.6	90.8	90.1	89.6
Hats, fur-felt	43.33	42.55	41.83	41.7	41.6	41.4	103.9	102.9	101.5
Jute goods, except felts	34.26	33.65	32.50	44.9	44.5	42.8	76.3	75.6	76.0
Cordage and twine	32.58	32.36	32.14	45.2	44.9	45.0	72.0	71.9	71.3
Apparel and other finished textile products	29.95	29.45	28.70	38.2	38.2	37.3	78.3	77.2	77.0
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	32.16	32.28	30.46	39.1	39.3	37.9	82.0	81.7	80.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	24.35	24.42	23.45	37.5	37.5	36.7	64.9	65.1	64.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	26.28	25.89	25.50	37.2	37.0	37.0	70.3	70.0	69.9
Work shirts	19.81	19.93	19.43	36.5	37.2	36.9	52.9	52.7	51.6
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	35.94	34.39	34.16	37.0	36.6	36.1	94.3	91.7	92.7
Corsets and allied garments	30.10	29.84	29.28	41.6	41.3	40.8	72.5	72.4	71.9
Millinery	31.60	32.37	33.30	29.1	30.7	31.5	89.1	88.4	88.3
Handkerchiefs	23.18	24.05	22.30	37.6	38.6	36.0	61.7	62.4	62.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	26.78	25.32	23.96	39.6	39.2	37.4	67.1	63.8	63.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	31.83	30.62	29.65	41.8	41.3	40.1	76.0	74.3	73.9
Textile bags	28.20	27.71	27.26	41.6	41.2	40.7	67.6	67.5	67.4
Leather and leather products	33.39	33.02	32.48	41.7	41.2	41.1	80.1	80.1	79.8
Leather	43.15	42.63	42.38	45.8	45.4	45.4	94.2	94.1	93.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	33.63	33.36	32.80	42.9	43.2	43.0	79.7	78.6	78.4
Boots and shoes	31.43	30.98	30.39	40.9	40.3	40.1	76.7	76.7	75.4
Leather gloves and mittens	28.94	29.36	29.14	37.9	38.2	38.6	77.5	77.3	75.9
Trunks and suitcases	34.37	34.85	32.61	41.9	42.5	40.7	80.9	81.1	79.7
Food	39.10	39.08	37.87	45.9	45.7	44.8	85.1	85.5	84.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	45.73	46.41	43.70	49.6	49.9	47.9	92.4	93.4	91.8
Butter	34.09	33.64	33.37	47.6	47.1	47.2	70.2	70.2	70.0
Condensed and evaporated milk	38.68	36.94	36.24	51.8	50.3	50.0	74.6	73.4	72.8
Ice cream	37.83	37.83	37.66	46.4	45.7	46.1	77.8	78.8	78.6
Flour	41.57	40.61	40.41	49.6	48.7	48.6	84.3	83.2	82.2
Cereal preparations	44.78	44.25	42.59	47.1	46.5	45.0	95.2	95.2	94.6
Baking	38.28	38.05	37.00	45.5	45.3	44.6	84.1	84.1	83.8
Sugar refining, cane	38.53	38.18	37.21	45.9	45.3	45.1	85.6	84.3	83.7
Sugar, beet	39.07	39.93	37.37	40.4	37.6	37.8	96.7	95.6	94.4
Confectionery	30.16	29.79	29.11	41.9	41.6	41.0	72.1	71.5	71.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	35.62	34.17	33.33	44.7	43.4	42.7	80.0	78.7	78.1
Malt liquors	52.93	51.27	50.45	47.8	46.5	45.9	111.4	110.8	108.8
Canning and preserving	30.82	31.30	30.76	40.4	40.8	39.9	76.9	77.9	77.9
Tobacco manufactures	29.82	29.34	27.00	42.3	42.0	39.0	70.6	69.8	68.1
Cigarettes	32.19	31.97	28.57	42.4	42.3	37.8	75.9	75.5	74.6
Cigars	28.45	27.68	26.01	42.6	42.3	40.4	66.6	65.5	64.4
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	26.22	25.48	24.78	30.8	30.9	37.8	65.8	65.5	65.8
Paper and allied products	39.21	38.75	38.09	46.3	46.0	45.5	84.6	84.2	83.7
Paper and pulp	42.86	42.49	41.59	48.4	48.3	47.6	88.4	87.9	87.2
Envelopes	37.20	36.54	35.77	45.7	45.1	44.5	81.4	81.0	80.4
Paper bags	33.55	32.96	33.21	44.1	43.5	44.1	76.3	76.1	75.1
Paper boxes	34.72	34.26	33.72	43.8	43.4	43.1	79.4	78.2	78.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	44.37	43.84	42.93	41.2	40.9	40.6	107.7	107.2	106.9
Newspapers and periodicals	48.45	48.29	47.07	38.3	38.1	37.7	124.8	124.6	123.2
Printing, book and job	43.17	42.09	41.35	42.6	42.1	41.9	100.3	99.4	98.3
Lithographing	46.61	45.84	44.33	48.0	44.4	43.0	103.0	103.2	102.6

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 6—Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944	June 1944	May 1944	April 1944
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Chemicals and allied products	\$44.30	\$43.95	\$43.01	46.0	46.0	45.6	96.3	95.5	94.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	46.57	45.98	45.19	48.0	47.8	47.3	97.0	96.4	95.7
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	34.44	34.76	33.72	42.8	43.3	42.5	80.8	80.7	79.5
Soap	48.33	46.91	47.02	48.5	47.5	47.6	96.5	96.7	96.8
Rayon and allied products	39.12	39.45	38.59	43.2	43.4	42.6	90.5	90.9	90.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	52.28	51.42	51.20	47.0	46.7	46.7	110.5	110.1	109.7
Explosives and safety fuses	47.72	47.66	46.66	46.7	46.7	46.2	102.1	102.2	101.0
Ammunition, small-arms	45.64	44.98	45.19	46.7	46.3	46.7	97.8	97.1	96.8
Cottonseed oil	23.97	26.29	25.94	48.2	49.9	49.9	53.8	52.6	52.0
Fertilizers	30.49	30.33	27.71	44.7	45.6	43.4	68.2	66.7	63.8
Products of petroleum and coal	55.21	55.14	54.36	46.8	47.0	46.3	118.1	117.4	117.4
Petroleum refining	57.78	58.27	57.83	46.5	47.0	46.3	124.8	124.2	124.7
Coke and byproducts	48.37	47.58	46.53	46.5	46.2	45.6	103.8	102.8	101.9
Roofing materials	47.00	45.74	44.51	49.6	48.9	48.1	94.5	93.5	92.6
Rubber products	49.35	49.06	48.12	45.2	45.1	44.7	100.3	108.9	107.5
Rubber tires and inner tubes	56.78	57.11	55.63	45.3	45.5	45.2	125.4	125.7	123.4
Rubber boots and shoes	41.11	40.02	40.33	44.6	44.1	44.5	92.2	90.7	90.5
Rubber goods, other	42.21	41.24	40.72	45.2	44.8	44.3	93.9	92.8	92.2
Miscellaneous industries	44.14	43.88	43.40	46.1	46.1	45.8	95.8	95.2	94.7
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	55.63	55.41	54.75	50.7	50.4	50.1	110.9	110.2	109.5
Photographic apparatus	48.31	48.18	47.79	45.4	45.8	45.7	106.6	105.3	104.7
Pianos, organs, and parts	46.49	46.07	46.25	45.7	46.0	46.3	102.2	100.5	100.4

NONMANUFACTURING

Coal mining:									
Anthracite	\$47.10	\$48.54	\$44.36	40.9	41.9	38.2	114.4	115.9	116.6
Bituminous	52.13	51.66	50.69	44.1	44.0	43.0	118.8	117.5	118.2
Metal mining	45.09	44.71	44.63	44.6	44.4	44.0	100.8	100.4	101.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	40.76	40.20	38.64	47.5	47.4	45.6	85.6	84.9	84.8
Crude-petroleum production	52.43	52.14	53.00	45.7	45.5	44.9	113.6	113.1	116.8
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Electric light and power	48.45	47.77	47.53	43.8	43.4	42.3	110.4	110.3	111.0
Street railways and busses	47.84	47.46	46.46	50.6	50.6	49.4	93.2	92.8	92.8
Trade:									
Wholesale	42.40	42.00	41.83	43.0	42.8	42.5	98.6	97.9	98.4
Retail ² :	27.06	26.29	26.06	42.3	41.3	41.4	70.0	69.7	69.0
Food ³	31.55	30.25	29.99	41.2	39.8	40.1	71.2	70.8	70.3
General merchandise ²	22.23	21.57	21.51	38.7	37.4	37.6	60.2	59.5	58.4
Apparel	28.15	27.79	27.61	38.2	37.4	37.2	79.9	79.9	79.9
Furniture and housefurnishings	38.11	37.55	37.15	43.6	43.5	43.4	86.7	85.3	84.3
Automotive	41.57	41.32	40.78	46.8	46.3	46.5	90.2	90.6	88.7
Lumber and building materials ²	36.78	37.23	36.61	44.4	44.5	44.5	89.2	88.2	88.8
Hotels (year-round) ⁴	22.54	22.46	22.26	44.5	44.5	44.8	50.1	49.8	49.1
Powder laundries	27.20	27.37	26.33	43.6	43.9	43.7	61.7	62.0	60.6
Cleaning and dyeing	31.37	31.65	30.30	44.3	44.7	43.7	72.2	72.5	71.4
Brokerage	54.00	52.29	53.19	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Insurance	44.56	45.04	44.24	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Private building construction	52.21	52.95	50.18	40.2	40.4	38.7	130.0	131.0	129.7

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:
Beverages, nonalcoholic—January, February, and March 1944 average weekly hours to 42.8, 42.4, and 42.5.

Retail trade total—Average weekly hours, January 1944 to 40.0, February to 40.2; average hourly earnings, January to 70.7 cents, February to 70.8 cents.

Food group—Average weekly earnings, March to \$29.59.

General merchandise group—Average weekly hours, January to 36.0, February to 36.2, March to 36.4; average hourly earnings, January to 88.4 cents, February to 57.9 cents, March to 58.0 cents.

Lumber group—Average weekly hours, January to 42.7; average hourly earnings to 85.6 cents.

³ Data are not available because of the merger of Western Union and Postal Telegraph.

⁴ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips not included.

⁵ Not available.

Employment in Nonagricultural Establishments in the United States, 1929-43¹

WARTIME expansion in industrial activity has lifted employment to unprecedented levels. The average number of employees in non-agricultural establishments was about 40 million in 1943—8 million more than in 1940, 17 million more than in 1932 at the depth of the depression, and over 8½ million more than in the boom year 1929.

These comparisons are made possible by the development of revised employment estimates for 1929-38. In making the revisions, the aim was to provide annual averages for the early period comparable with the monthly estimates published currently, which could be used in studying trends in employment over the past 15 years.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics current figures on nonagricultural employment are based on pay-roll reports from sample establishments in a wide range of industries, on data from the Federal Security Agency regarding workers covered by State unemployment-compensation programs, and on information from a number of other Government agencies, including the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance. For years prior to 1939, however, the only figures available until the present revisions were from an earlier series, developed before satisfactory unemployment-compensation statistics were in existence. In this series, data from the Censuses of Manufactures, Business, and Population were used to adjust and supplement the information on employment trends drawn from the Bureau's pay-roll samples.

These two sets of employment estimates overlapped in 1939. They had, however, quite different levels in that year, owing to differences in concept and coverage between the Census statistics and those compiled by the social-security agencies. The two series differed also in industry classification. Moreover, from information which had become available since the early figures were compiled, it was apparent that modifications were needed in the trends of employment shown for some industries.² The present revisions introduce appropriate adjustments in the employment estimates for different industry groups and eliminate the inconsistencies between the figures for the earlier and later periods.³

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division, in consultation and cooperation with the Employment Statistics Division, under the supervision of Helen Wood. The Division of Construction and Public Employment supplied the estimates for construction and government.

² For example, the Bureau's estimates of the number of wage earners in manufacturing reflected a distortion of employment trends between 1937 and 1939 in the data from the Census of Manufactures. The 1939 Census made a number of changes in the classes of employees for whom information was requested and thus brought about a narrower definition of wage earners than in previous years.

³ A technical description of the sources and methods used in the revisions has been prepared and is available upon request.

Table 1 presents the revised employment estimates for each non-agricultural industry division, together with the estimates for 1939-43, to which the early figures have been made comparable. Separate estimates are given for transportation and for public utilities, which have been grouped together in previous series on nonagricultural employment. As the table shows, employment has greatly surpassed its 1929 level in manufacturing, trade, and government service. In construction and in finance, service, and miscellaneous industries, the average number of employees was higher in 1941 than in 1929 but dropped below the 1929 figure by 1943, owing to special wartime conditions. In the other industry divisions—mining, transportation, and public utilities—employment is much higher than in the depression years but has never regained the level of 1929.

TABLE I.—*Average Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Divisions, 1929-43*

Year	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)								
	All industry divisions	Manufacturing	Mining	Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	Transportation	Public utilities	Trade	Finance, service, and miscellaneous	Federal, State, and local government
1929	31,149	10,534	1,078	2,122	2,886	1,021	6,246	4,203	3,059
1930	28,996	9,401	1,000	1,721	2,652	1,023	5,932	4,079	3,188
1931	26,125	8,021	864	1,470	2,322	921	5,439	3,830	3,258
1932	22,921	6,797	723	1,008	1,988	816	4,861	3,517	3,212
1933	23,060	7,258	735	881	1,910	749	4,916	3,462	3,149
1934	25,449	8,346	874	1,038	1,966	770	5,429	3,667	3,259
1935	26,599	8,907	888	1,181	1,996	775	5,610	3,797	3,445
1936	28,809	9,553	937	1,623	2,140	816	5,983	4,026	3,631
1937	30,627	10,606	1,006	1,575	2,248	866	6,424	4,195	3,707
1938	28,663	9,253	882	1,382	2,005	835	6,354	4,117	3,635
1939	30,353	10,078	845	1,753	2,080	832	6,618	4,160	3,968
1940	31,784	10,780	916	1,722	2,157	856	6,906	4,310	4,136
1941	35,668	12,974	947	2,236	2,340	908	7,378	4,438	4,446
1942	38,447	15,051	970	2,079	2,527	906	7,263	4,447	5,203
1943	39,728	16,924	891	1,258	2,746	873	7,030	4,115	5,890

Within manufacturing, there has been a marked rise in employment above the low point of the depression in all but one of the 20 major groups. This is shown by table 2, which presents estimates of the number of wage earners in each group, by years, from 1929 to 1940.⁴ Between 1932 and the pre-Pearl Harbor year 1940, wage-earner employment increased by more than 100 percent in 4 manufacturing groups and by more than 50 percent in 10 other groups. The only major branch of manufacturing in which the number of wage earners did not rise by at least 20 percent was tobacco manufactures; though the output of tobacco products rose greatly during these 8 years, technological developments made it possible to expand production without increasing employment.

⁴ Comparable figures for 1941 are given in a mimeographed release (LS 44-294) issued by the Bureau's Employment Statistics Division in January 1944. A revision of the wage-earner estimates for 1942-44 is in process and will be released in the near future.

TABLE 2.—*Average Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing, by Industry Group, 1929-40*

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)											
	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
All manufacturing	8,445	7,358	6,212	5,275	5,840	6,811	7,269	7,900	8,666	7,372	8,102	8,601
Iron and steel and their products	1,061	910	704	565	642	702	863	907	1,143	876	961	1,128
Electrical machinery	338	275	213	136	161	206	221	251	301	219	260	285
Machinery, except electrical	606	510	376	274	298	391	450	525	631	485	539	610
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	136	129	87	69	63	89	93	122	150	116	138	125
Automobiles	471	341	302	257	257	380	408	430	505	306	402	445
Nonferrous metals and their products	254	205	167	134	144	176	199	222	250	201	229	237
Lumber and timber basic products	582	448	288	210	255	306	345	401	444	383	420	462
Furniture and finished lumber products	365	304	263	212	232	242	279	310	339	287	328	360
Stone, clay, and glass products	334	285	227	166	176	219	237	272	306	260	294	309
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,179	1,021	953	852	1,023	1,071	1,121	1,145	1,194	1,025	1,144	1,126
Apparel and other finished textile products	626	579	550	490	536	596	662	714	723	696	796	786
Leather and leather products	333	308	285	275	295	318	325	331	347	329	347	328
Food	722	701	621	576	632	774	780	820	869	835	855	886
Tobacco manufactures	123	115	106	96	93	100	96	97	98	95	93	102
Paper and allied products	234	223	194	176	193	222	230	240	261	244	265	258
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	334	328	297	260	249	274	290	310	332	322	328	329
Chemicals and allied products	268	249	219	194	224	256	261	271	299	267	288	289
Products of petroleum and coal	102	100	83	76	83	95	97	102	107	102	108	112
Rubber products	146	113	97	89	104	117	112	119	127	109	121	127
Miscellaneous industries	241	214	180	148	160	187	201	221	240	222	244	261

Estimates of the number of employees in individual mining and transportation industries from 1929 to 1943 are given in tables 3 and 4. These are the first figures showing the industrial distribution of all employees in mining and transportation which the Bureau has published. A striking fact that emerges from the figures is the decline in employment in anthracite mining during the last 15 years. This decline has gone on since 1929, with minor interruptions, and has been accentuated since the United States entered the war. The decreased volume of employment in railroads and allied services is noteworthy also. Employment has increased in all major transportation industries during the last 3 years, but it is still below the 1929 level in the railroad group, whereas in all other types of transportation combined the number of employees is now much greater than in 1929.

TABLE 3.—*Average Number of Employees in Mining, by Industry, 1929-43*

Year	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)				Year	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	Total	Anthra-cite mining	Bitumi-nous coal mining	Other min-ing, quarry-ing, and petroleum and natural-gas pro-duction		Total	Anthra-cite mining	Bitumi-nous coal mining	Other min-ing, quarry-ing, and petroleum and natural-gas pro-duction
1929	1,078	153	482	443	1937	1,006	99	482	65
1930	1,000	146	463	301	1938	882	89	425	38
1931	864	129	428	307	1939	845	89	388	38
1932	722	104	368	250	1940	916	91	435	45
1933	735	91	384	260	1941	947	80	435	49
1934	874	105	443	326	1942	970	85	476	39
1935	888	99	457	332	1943	891	78	428	39
1936	937	99	471	367					

TABLE 4.—Average Number of Employees in Transportation, by Industry, 1929-43

Year	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			Year	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)		
	Total	Railroads and allied services	Other transportation		Total	Railroads and allied services	Other transportation
1929	2,886	1,927	959	1937	2,248	1,287	961
1930	2,652	1,727	925	1938	2,005	1,094	911
1931	2,322	1,461	861	1939	2,080	1,150	930
1932	1,988	1,196	792	1940	2,157	1,196	961
1933	1,910	1,119	791	1941	2,340	1,323	1,017
1934	1,966	1,159	807	1942	2,527	1,470	1,057
1935	1,996	1,146	850	1943	2,748	1,579	1,167
1936	2,140	1,228	912				



Civilian Labor Force, July 1944

A SEASONAL gain of approximately 400,000 over the all-time peak recorded in June brought the number of women and girls in the civilian labor force to a new high of 19,110,000 in July 1944, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. This figure surpasses the July 1943 level by 450,000.

Almost all of the increase in the female labor force between June and July occurred in nonagricultural industries which employed a record total of 16,440,000 women—about 400,000 more than the number employed in July a year ago. The number of women employed on farms increased slightly to a total of 2,150,000, which was somewhat below the peak of 2,210,000 reached last summer.

Altogether, the civilian labor force increased seasonally by about 800,000 persons between June and July. Approximately 700,000 of this increase occurred in nonagricultural employment, as school terms ended in urban areas and young people obtained jobs. The underlying trend in nonagricultural employment, however, was still downward, the figure for July 1944 being about 700,000 below that for the same month of the previous year. The armed forces increased by about 2,300,000 during the 1-year period.

Unemployment continued at the low level of approximately 1 million persons.

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8	1929	1940
72,8,192,6,80		
76	901	1,124
19	266	302
85	529	601
83	420	462
87	328	38
50	294	38
25,1,144,1,134		
36	706	78
29	347	32
55	855	86
65	63	21
44	263	28
22	328	28
7	288	28
22	106	12
69	121	17
23	234	36

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Civilian Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status and by Sex, June and July 1940-44¹

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over ¹									
	1944		1943		1942		1941		1940	
	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June	July	June
Total civilian labor force.....	55,000	54,220	56,040	55,220	56,770	56,260	56,550	56,130	56,420	55,800
Unemployment ²	1,000	1,000	1,290	1,220	2,430	2,550	5,240	5,520	8,410	7,730
Employment.....	54,000	53,220	54,750	54,000	54,340	53,710	51,310	50,610	48,010	47,380
Nonagricultural.....	44,330	43,660	45,050	44,180	44,340	43,480	41,380	40,510	37,350	36,980
Agricultural.....	9,670	9,560	9,700	9,820	10,000	10,230	9,930	10,100	10,660	10,880
<i>Males</i>										
Civilian labor force.....	35,890	35,540	37,380	36,880	41,220	40,790	42,150	41,700	42,570	41,710
Unemployment ²	480	500	710	660	1,510	1,610	3,580	3,800	5,890	5,430
Employment.....	35,410	35,040	36,670	36,220	39,710	39,180	38,570	37,990	36,680	36,280
Nonagricultural.....	27,890	27,600	29,050	28,610	31,510	31,070	30,100	29,480	27,270	27,060
Agricultural.....	7,620	7,440	7,620	7,610	8,200	8,110	8,470	8,510	9,410	9,170
<i>Females</i>										
Civilian labor force.....	19,110	18,680	18,660	18,340	15,550	15,470	14,400	14,340	13,850	13,880
Unemployment ²	520	500	580	560	920	940	1,660	1,720	2,520	2,270
Employment.....	18,590	18,180	18,080	17,780	14,630	14,530	12,740	12,620	11,330	11,550
Nonagricultural.....	16,440	16,060	16,000	15,570	12,830	12,410	11,280	11,030	10,080	9,980
Agricultural.....	2,150	2,120	2,080	2,210	1,800	2,120	1,460	1,590	1,250	1,730

¹ Estimates for period prior to November 1943 revised April 24, 1944.² All data exclude persons in institutions.³ Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

Labor Chronology

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1940

July June

4,420	55,598
4,410	7,728
4,010	47,988
3,250	36,928
1,660	10,888

1,570	41,710
800	5,488
680	36,388
270	27,088
410	4,138

830	13,88
520	2,228
330	11,388
680	6,888
250	1,728

APRIL

1944

Apr. 7. The War Manpower Commission announced that discharged members of the armed services looking for work will find at every U. S. Employment Service office a summary of current and post-war job opportunities in all the country's major industrial centers with a population of 100,000 or more, as well as in the principal city in every State. The information covers such subjects as local principal firms, jobs available, wage rates, and availability of housing, transportation, and other community facilities. (Source: War Manpower Commission, PM-4549.)

On May 14, the WMC announced that in March, 1944, the USES had placed 56,485 veterans in civilian jobs, as compared with 51,833 in February; 778,103 nonagricultural jobs were filled in March. (Source: PM-4578.)

On May 29 the WMC announced that the following training programs were available to veterans: (1) WMC Apprentice Training Service, (2) Engineering, Science, and Management War Training Program, (3) Food War Training Program, (4) WMC Training Within Industry Service, and (5) Vocational Training for War Production Workers Program. (Source: PM-4588.)

Apr. 8. The Director of Selective Service announced the postponement of processing for induction of men 26 years of age and older engaged in essential activities. On March 14 he had ordered the denial of occupational deferments to all registrants under 26 years of age, except those engaged in agriculture or in activities whose deferment was specifically authorized by him or by a State Director of Selective Service. (Source: National Selective Service Headquarters, S-16, S-17, S-20; for discussion of occupational deferment policies, see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 89.)

Apr. 8. The National War Labor Board announced its unanimous approval of the wage provisions of the agreement signed by the anthracite operators and the United Mine Workers of America on March 8, 1944. (For discussion of wage provisions, see M. L. R. June 1944, p. 1197.)

Apr. 8. The NWLB announced its decisions in two cases, ruling that it could properly direct arbitration of a labor dispute over the discharge of an employee when a union contract provided grievance machinery with arbitration as a last step (see also Chron. items for Mar. 10 and 28, 1944, M. L. R. June 1944). (Source: Office of War Information, NWLB, B-1429.)

Apr. 9. The Shipbuilding Commission of the NWLB, in directing the Ira S. Bushey & Sons Co. (Brooklyn), shipbuilders, to honor the National Labor Relations Board certification of the Industrial Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America, C. I. O., announced that it has no right to question any certification of a union by the NLRB, and that such certification could be reversed only by the Board or by court action. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1436.)

1944

- Apr. 10. The Supreme Court upheld an order of the NWLB directing the Frank Bros. Co. (Lawrence, Mass.), to bargain collectively with a union which had had a majority of the company's employees when it first started its unsuccessful attempts to negotiate with the company, but later had lost its majority. (For summary of decision, see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 124.)
- Apr. 10. The OPA announced the first step in a new program, effective April 20, 1944, to provide extra food rations to workers in heavy industry. At first, the program provides food only for loggers, primarily those who eat at logging camps and other on-the-job eating places. Food needs of men in other heavy industries were in process of computation. (Source: OPA-4168.)
- Apr. 11. The WMC issued a general order putting the cotton-textile industry on a 48-hour workweek, effective May 14, 1944. Three other industries (steel, lumbering, and nonferrous-metal mining and milling) had already been ordered to introduce the 48-hour week on a national basis. (Source: WMC, PM-4550.)
- Apr. 12. The WMC announced that placements of handicapped workers in 1943 were approximately 7 times the number placed in 1940. In 1943, 194,129 handicapped workers had been placed, as compared with 27,703 in 1940, 53,224 in 1941, and 91,410 in 1942. As a result of industry's rapidly changing attitude toward employment of handicapped persons, "a far higher percentage of jobs for this war's casualties can be found than was available for those of the last war." (Source: WMC, PM-4551.) At the end of May 1944, over 2,000 blind workers were employed in essential war jobs in approximately half of the States. (Source: PM-4580.)
- Apr. 13. The NWLB directed uniform vacation schedules for the Wichita, Kans., plants of the Boeing Airplane Co. and the Beech Aircraft Co., providing for a paid vacation of 1 week after a year of service and 2 weeks after 5 years. Approximately 25,000 workers were affected. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1500.)
On April 15 the Board, by a vote of 8 to 4, in upholding a regional board's order directing a company—which had already agreed to give its employees one week of paid vacation after a year of service—to introduce a vacation plan like the one above, ruled that "it is within the discretion of the Regional Boards to order or approve vacation plans providing for 2 weeks after 5 years of service even though it is not shown that such provisions are the prevailing practice in the local area or in the particular industry." (Source: B-1458.)
- Apr. 14. The National Labor Relations Board decided that the delivery employees of the American News Co. (Paterson, N. J.) who had gone out on a strike to induce their employer to increase their wages in violation of the Stabilization Act were not entitled to reinstatement in their jobs under the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, 14 LRR 223.)
- Apr. 14. The WMC announced that 2,000 unskilled workers would be recruited in Puerto Rico within the next 2 months for railroad-maintenance work in the United States. (Source: WMC, PM-4554.) On April 19 the WMC announced that several thousand more Puerto Ricans would be recruited for canneries and other food-processing plants which would require more than 700,000 workers before the end of the summer. (Source: PM-4559.)
On April 28, the Department of Agriculture announced the arrival of 804 agricultural workers from Jamaica. (Source: U. S. Department of Agriculture, AG-1001.) Subsequently (June 13), the War Food Administration announced that from 14,000 to 20,000 additional Mexican workers would be imported to avert a threatened crisis in the production of sugar beets. (Source: AG-1023.)
- On May 31, 1944, there were in the United States 48,237 foreign workers employed in or available for agricultural war work

1944

(36,506 Mexicans, 4,977 Jamaicans, 4,888 Bahamians, 519 Newfoundlanders, and 1,347 Japanese evacuees). (Source: Farm Labor, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, June 14, 1944, p. 2; see Chron. item for Feb. 11, M. L. R. June 1944.)

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Apr. 15. The NWLB, in denying the application of the North American Aviation Co. to increase wage rates at its plant in Waco, Tex., to the level paid in the company's plants in California, Kansas, and Texas, held that the approval of corporation-wide uniformity of rates in this case would seriously unstabilize wages in the Waco area. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1473.)

Apr. 18. The WMC, in beginning its third year of service, announced that in 1943 its 1,500 U. S. Employment Service offices had found jobs for 9,393,196 nonagricultural workers, as compared with 6,191,892 in 1942. In the first 2 years of its existence the WMC had (1) found employment for some 4,300,000 persons who had been unemployed at the beginning of 1942, (2) induced 3,500,000 women not normally in the labor force to take wartime jobs, and (3) recruited 2,000,000 additional part-time workers or others who in peacetime would not be considered eligible for jobs. (Source: WMC, PM-4557.)

Apr. 20. The NWLB, in a dispute involving the Young Men's Christian Association in Chicago, and two local unions of service employees, stated its policy of not accepting jurisdiction over labor disputes concerning union recognition or representation of workers in intra-state commerce. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1462.) (For Board's policy for such disputes in war plants, see third Chron. item for Apr. 10, 1943, M. L. R. Aug. 1943.)

April 20-May 12. The International Labor Organization held its Twenty-Sixth Conference in Philadelphia. (For summary of proceedings, see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 1.)

Apr. 22. The WMC announced that arrangements had been completed with the Canadian Government whereby some 3,500 Canadian border-woodsmen, working in the forests of the Northeastern region of the United States, would be authorized to remain indefinitely at their work beyond the expiration of their permits on April 30, 1944. (Source: WMC, PM-4564.)

Apr. 23. The NWLB announced the issuance to its commissions and regional boards of amended instructions concerning the approval of new wage-rate ranges. The main change involved employers who had received approval from the Board to raise an existing rate range or to establish a new range where none had previously existed; in such cases, employers could not hire during a given year more than 25 percent of their new employees at rates above the minimum of the new rate range. However, employers in new establishments or new departments in existing establishments were authorized to hire during the first year as many as 50 percent of their new employees above the minimum of an approved new rate range. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1466.)

Apr. 24. The NWLB delegated to the Federal Security Agency authority to approve wage adjustments for the Agency's employees whose wages or salaries are not fixed by statute. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1494.)

Apr. 25. The President by Executive order, authorized the Secretary of Commerce to take possession of and operate the plants and facilities of Montgomery Ward & Co. (Chicago). This action was taken in view of threatened interruptions in the operation of the plants, as a result of labor disturbances arising from the failure of the company to comply with directive orders of the NWLB. (Source: The White House, Release of April 25, 1944.) (See also Chron. item for Nov. 18, 1942, M. L. R. Feb. 1943.)

1944

Apr. 26. The WMC and the Federal Security Agency announced a joint program for the rehabilitation and employment of disabled persons. It was stated that there were about a million persons for whom employment was out of the question without vocational rehabilitation and selective placement. Under the program, local USES offices will refer to State rehabilitation agencies persons qualifying for rehabilitation service; the agencies in turn will use the placement facilities of the USES offices. (Source: OWI, PM-4568.)

Apr. 27. The NWLB, by a vote of 4 to 2 (the 2 labor members dissenting), set aside a decision of its regional board in Detroit, and upheld the right of the management of the Norge Machine Products Division of the Borg-Warner Corporation (Muskegon, Mich.) to discharge 41 of its employees who had struck before exhausting the grievance procedure in the collective agreement. The Board decided that any of the 41 discharged workers might apply to the company as individuals within 15 days after May 15, 1944, for reemployment as new employees. The management might determine which of the employees would be reinstated without loss of seniority. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1516.)

Apr. 29. The NWLB announced procedures for handling wage-dispute cases in which Government agencies have expressed an interest. (See first Chron. item for Dec. 30, 1943, M. L. R. Feb. 1944.) (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1482.)

MAY

May 3. The OPA removed temporarily from rationing all meats except beef steaks and roasts in order to relieve storage congestion. Red stamps in the same amount as previously (30 points) would be validated every 4 weeks instead of every 2 weeks. (Source: OPA, OPA-T-2054, OPA-4272.) All rationing restrictions were removed from lard on May 25. (Source: OPA-4358.) In April, all frozen foods had been freed from rationing, as well as certain canned vegetables, and marmalades containing only citrus fruits. (Source: OPA-4228.)

May 4. The NWLB issued a unanimous statement of policy in regard to voluntary applications for approval of annual bonuses or other similar types of bonuses. Applications would be approved on the basis of the following criteria: (1) No appreciable increase in cost of production shall result from the introduction of the bonus plan; (2) the bonus plan must conform to the prevailing practice in the industry or area, and not create interestablishment or intraestablishment inequities; and (3) general allegations of increased work or duties performed by the employees under the proposed bonus plan will not be considered. Customary or traditional bonuses, gifts, or commissions would not be affected if they are granted in the same amount or at the same rate, if on a percentage, incentive, or other similar basis. (Source OWI, NWLB, B-1496.)

On May 26 the NWLB announced the approval of a 5-percent bonus for some 4,000 hourly rated employees in 3 plants (Toledo, Ohio; Batavia, N. Y.; Pottstown, Pa.) of the Doehler Die Casting Co., to correct intraplant inequities between earnings of incentive and nonincentive workers. (Source: B-1549.)

May 5. The WMC announced that in the wartime school for essential railroad workers, established through the cooperation of the WMC and various railroads in the offices of the St. Louis Terminal Railroad Association, nearly 100 firemen, brakemen, and switchmen had received training. Classes were subsequently established for the training of railroad telegraphers. (Source: WMC, PM-4573.)

On May 9, the WMC announced that in an underground school in the Carbon county mines, near Price, Utah, some 900 persons

1944

had been trained as coal miners. Under the sponsorship of the U. S. Office of Education, in cooperation with State Boards for Vocational Education, special training programs were being carried out in an increasing number of coal-mining communities in Utah, Colorado, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. (Source: PM-4574.)

May 7. The chairman of the WMC reported that since July 1, 1940, more than 12,146,000 persons had been enrolled in Federal, State, and local war production training programs authorized by Congress. The training agencies and their totals of enrollment are: Vocational Training for War Production Workers, 6,238,620; Food Production War Training, 2,498,972; Engineering, Science and Management War Training, 1,472,503; Training-Within-Industry, 1,163,540; National Youth Administration (discontinued), 772,756. (Source: WMC, PM-4575.)

May 8. The NLRB ruled that foremen and other supervisors are "employees" within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act and are entitled to protection under the Wagner Act against unfair labor practices of employers, even though they are not entitled to the bargaining rights guaranteed to employees by the latter act. (Source: Labor Relations Reporter, 14 LRR 325.)

On May 18 the NWLB, in accordance with the opinion of its General Counsel that dispute cases involving unions representing foremen and supervisors were within the jurisdiction of the Board under the War Labor Disputes Act, announced that it would appoint a panel to consider the foremen's dispute in Detroit, involving 8 companies and 3 unions. The Board acted after the termination of a strike in 13 plants. (Source: NWLB, B-1531, B-1560.)

May 8. The NWLB, with the labor members dissenting, in a case affecting the Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation (Tucson, Ariz.), denied the demand of the machinists' union for joint participation with the company in the determination of merit increases and promotions. For summary of decision, see M. L. R. Aug. 1944, p. 381.

May 11. The President, by Executive order, suspended the 8-hour law for laborers and mechanics employed by the Veterans Administration in essential war work. (For summary, see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 92.)

May 18. The WMC announced a list of 15 "locally needed" activities, to be used by regional directors in designating certain trades and services as "locally needed" and therefore eligible for preferential treatment in obtaining new employees through the U. S. Employment Service. Henceforth the designation by a regional director of any unlisted activity as "locally needed" would have to be approved by headquarters. (Source: WMC, PM-4579; for list of activities see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 88.)

May 19. The NWLB announced a 5-point program for independent-union participation in the work of the Board and its regional boards and industry commissions. The program included: (1) The designation of a liaison officer for independent unions, to answer inquiries regarding cases before the National Board, and of a similar liaison officer for each regional board; (2) the designation, if so requested by a union, of an independent union representative as the labor representative on review, appeals, or post-directive committees of the National Board in cases affecting independent unions; (3) condemnation of "organizing tactics of any union based upon claim of preferred treatment by this Board"; (4) appointment of a representative of an independent union as labor member of a panel considering a dispute involving an independent union; and (5) referral of jurisdiction disputes between an independent union and C. I. O. or A. F. of L. unions to an arbitrator for final determination, as is done in jurisdiction disputes between C. I. O. and A. F. of L. unions. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1526.) (See also Chron. item for Mar. 10, 1944, M. L. R. June 1944.)

1944

May 19. The NWLB, by a vote of 10 to 2 (industry members dissenting), approved a "Supplemental Wage Agreement" between the United Mine Workers and coal operators producing more than 70 percent of the nation's bituminous coal. The terms of the agreement are the same as those prevailing under Government operation of the mines (see Chron. item for Nov. 1, 1943, M. L. R. Feb. 1944), but in addition provide for (1) the payment of \$10 to each miner for all portal-to-portal wage claims for the period April 1, 1943 to November 3, 1943 (when the Government began the operation of the mines), and (2) payment by operators for all travel time in excess of 45 minutes a day, as though the excess time were productive time. The Southern Coal Producers' Association was not a party to the supplemental wage agreement, but was awaiting a final decision by the Supreme Court on the question of portal-to-portal pay in coal mines (see Chron. item for Mar. 27, 1944, M. L. R. June 1944). (Source: O. W. I., NWLB, B-1533.) However, toward the end of June 1944 practically all of the bituminous-coal mines were returned to their owners, as the Southern Coal Producers' Association agreed to the above-mentioned agreement. The companies with the portal-to-portal case in the courts had withdrawn from the Association. (Source: Department of the Interior.)

May 19. The Chairman of the WMC authorized regional directors to extend the program for directing all male workers to jobs through the USES, or channels designated by the USES, to group III and IV labor areas (see Chron. item for Oct. 21, 1943, M. L. R. Feb. 1944). Hitherto "controlled referral" had been limited to group I and II areas. Under the program it will be impossible for an individual to obtain a job in a nonessential or even in an essential activity without USES approval. (Source: WMC, PM-4583.)

May 20. The WMC announced that in classifying labor-market areas (see Chron. item for Oct. 21, 1943, M. L. R. Feb. 1944) it would no longer count long-time balanced or surplus labor areas having cities with populations of less than 50,000. Thus the number of areas reported on dropped from 354 in May to 319 in June. As of June 1, 1944, there were 69 acute labor-shortage areas (group I), 115 areas of labor stringency and anticipating a labor shortage within 6 months (group II), 104 areas which would have a slight surplus after 6 months (group III), and 31 areas with a prospective substantial labor surplus (group IV). On December 1, 1943, there were 69 areas in group I, 124 in group II, 102 in group III, and 63 in group IV. (Source: WMC, PM-4582 and PM-4592.)

On June 12 the Chairman of the WMC reported that of the country's population 20.4 percent was in the group I areas, 21.6 percent in the group II areas, 12.8 percent in the group III areas, and 11.6 percent in the group IV areas. Outside of these areas was 33.6 percent of the population. (Source: PM-4605.)

May 23. The NWLB, in rendering its opinion in support of an order providing for a 5-cent hourly increase for 115 operators in the Carbide & Carbon Chemicals Corporation (Whiting, Ind.), said that it would "customarily not change established peace-time differentials between the general wage levels of particular plants," but, when necessary, it would, while conforming to the national wage-stabilization program, "readjust particular job-classification rates in order to provide a balanced internal rate structure." The company had granted a wage increase of 10 cents per hour to all its employees except operators, who received only a 4-cent increase per hour, in view of an increase of 6 cents they had negotiated a month earlier. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1556.)

May 27. The NWLB announced that it had extended the provisions of the Wage Stabilization Act to employers of 8 or fewer employees (see Chron. item for Oct. 9, 1942, M. L. R. Feb. 1943) engaged in (1) the manufacture of jewelry in region II of the NWLB and

1944

in Albuquerque, N. Mex.; (2) logging and sawmilling operations in region IX; (3) patternmaking in the metropolitan area of Portland, Oreg., and Seattle and Spokane, Wash.; (4) machine-shop work in Seattle, Spokane, and other specified localities in region XII; (5) truck driving; shoe, radio, and watch repairing; radio broadcasting stations; dry-cleaning establishments; restaurants; wholesale and retail distribution establishments; clerical work; and hotels in region XII, embracing the States of Washington and Oregon. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1553.) On May 30, 1944, employers engaged in the packing and shipping of potatoes in the State of Maine were also included. (Source: B-1578.)

May 28. The Chairman of WMC reported that, as a result of war production training classes in Federal and State penitentiaries and in other correctional institutions, a steady flow of men and women is reaching aircraft factories, shipyards and other vital industries. About 3,300 men and women had been trained in short courses in Federal prison institutions. New York, California, North Carolina, and Ohio are leading in the number of prisoners trained in State penitentiaries. In the North Carolina State Penitentiary alone about 250 prisoners had been trained in specific trade skills and were placed in war jobs upon release. (Source: WMC, PM-4585.)

JUNE

June 2. The WMC directed its regional directors to put into effect not later than July 1, a priority-referral plan, designed to aid war industries suffering from a critical shortage of male labor. (Source: WMC, PM-4596, PM-4596A. For summary, see M. L. R. July 1944, p. 87.) On June 4, the WMC issued a list of questions and answers on the plan. (Source: PM-4599). On June 21, standards governing priority referral were issued. (Source: WMC, Field Instruction No. 416, Supplement No. 1; for summary, see M. L. R. Aug. 1944, p. 303.)

June 3. The NWLB by a unanimous resolution extended to Hawaii its wage and salary stabilization regulations and procedures for the settlement of labor disputes, effective June 6, 1944. The regulations also applied to employers with fewer than 8 workers. On June 14 the NWLB established a tripartite Territorial War Labor Board for Hawaii and delegated to it jurisdiction over all labor disputes and voluntary wage and salary adjustments in Hawaii. (Source: Office of War Information, NWLB, B-1572, B-1577, B-1596.)

June 9. The WPB announced the creation of a National Foundry and Forge Shop Committee representing five Federal agencies (WPB, WMC, War and Navy Departments, and the Maritime Commission) directly concerned with the critical labor shortage in foundries and forge shops whose output was designated as the nation's primary production problem. (Source: WPB, WPB-5879.)

June 12. The Chairman of the WMC announced that he was establishing a National Manpower Priorities Committee in connection with the Nation-wide plan for the allocation of labor in the order of urgency to the war effort, and that he had requested representation from the War and Navy Departments, the Maritime Commission, the WPB, the Selective Service System, the Aircraft Production Board (Resources Control Office), and the Civil Service Commission. The first meeting of the committee was scheduled for June 15. (Source: WMC, PM-4604.)

June 15. The NWLB ordered the American Federation of Musicians, AFL, to withdraw the ban, in effect since June 25, 1942, upon the making of phonograph records and transcriptions by members of the Federation. The Federation and the three companies who were parties to the dispute were ordered to reach an agreement on the

1944

amounts and the schedule of escrow payments to be paid by the companies into the Employment Fund of the Federation, and on the method of the eventual distribution of the fund. Failing an agreement within 30 days, the parties were given an additional 10 days to agree upon the composition of an arbitration board. In case of no agreement, the NWLB would then appoint an arbitration board. The agreements entered into between the parties would not be subject to approval by the NWLB, since wage adjustments within the meaning of the wage-stabilization program were not involved. (Source: OWI, NWLB, B-1588.)

June 16. The NWLB, by a vote of 6 to 3 (the labor members dissenting), affirmed its directive order of May 17, 1944, denying a general wage increase, in 77 dispute cases, to approximately 130,000 workers in the Pacific Northwest pine and fir lumber industry. The Board in affirming its order, after a conference with representatives of the WPB, WMC, and the War and Navy Departments, stated that in view of the manpower shortage in other critical industries "a wage increase of the character sought would seriously upset the regional wage structure of the Pacific Northwest, without solving the manpower problem. (Source: O. W. I., NWLB, B-1600.) On May 25, 1944, the WMC informed its field offices that logging and lumbering had been added to the Production Urgency List of the WPB. By this action the industry's requests for workers would receive a priority rating in USES offices. (Source: WMC, PM-4587.) On June 1, 1944, the WMC announced that more than 1,000 workers would be imported from British Honduras to meet the serious labor shortage in the logging and lumbering industry. (Source: PM-4590.)

June 17. The WPB announced the creation of an Office of Labor Advisory Committee in the WPB Office of Labor Production. (Source: WPB, WPB-5942. For summary, see M. L. R. Aug. 1944, p. 308.)

June 17. The Secretary of the Interior announced that members of the United Mine Workers had agreed to work in the bituminous mines during their 1944 vacation period, July 1-July 10, except for July 4. In addition to regular pay, each miner would receive \$50 vacation pay. (Source: Dept. of Interior, OWI-3303.)

June 19. The Veterans Administration announced that the first of many rehabilitation centers would be established at the College of the City of New York to provide job counseling and to arrange for vocational training and rehabilitation of disabled veterans. (Source: Veterans' Administration, OWI-3305.)

June 22. The President approved the "Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944," popularly named the "G. I. Bill of Rights." (See Chron. items for Oct. 27, and Nov. 23, 1943, M. L. R. Feb. 1944; and Feb. 3, 1944, M. L. R. June, 1944). (Sources: Public Law 346; White House, Statement by the President, June 22, 1944. For summary, see M. L. R. Aug. 1944, p. 383.)

June 30. The OPA announced a national restaurant regulation to go into effect on July 31, 1944, and to apply to all States and areas, including those hitherto unregulated. All public eating and drinking establishments were put under stricter obligations (see Chron. item for April 12, 1943, M. L. R. August 1943). Mainly, they were obligated to post prominently the base period ceiling prices for a list of 40 basic menu items served. (Source: OPA-4477)

June 30. The President approved the "Stabilization Extension Act of 1944," by which the Congress renewed, with amendments, the general authority vested in the executive agencies to combat inflation. (Source: Public Law 383; White House, Statement by the President, June 30, 1944.)

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

September 1944

Conciliation and Arbitration

Arbitration provisions in union agreements. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 18 pp. (Bull. No. 780.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Industrial arbitration as developed and practiced in the laundry industry, [New York City]. By Virginia Beecher. New York, New School for Social Research, [1943]. 31 pp.

The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, [British Columbia]: The text of the statute and the regulations, together with explanatory questions and answers. Victoria, Department of Labor, 1943. 54 pp.

Cooperative Movement

International aspects of the cooperative movement. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1660; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1944.) Free.

Statistics of farmers' marketing and purchasing cooperatives, 1942-43 marketing season. By Grace Wanstall and R. H. Elsworth. Washington 25, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, Cooperative Research and Service Division, 1944. 23 pp., map, charts. (Miscellaneous report No. 70.)

The implication of the campus cooperative movement for homemaking education. By Katharine Walter Kumler. (In Abstracts of Doctoral Dissertations No. 41, Ohio State University Press, Columbus, Ohio, 1943, pp. 95-102. Also reprinted.)

China's industrial future. By Rewi Alley. (In Free World, New York 12, August 1944, pp. 151-156. 40 cents.)

Contains an evaluation of the industrial cooperatives as one factor in China's post-war economy.

Silver jubilee souvenir, Bombay Provincial Cooperative Institute, July 13, 1943. Bombay, India, [1943?]. 52 pp.

Report issued in celebration of the 25 years' operation of the Bombay Provincial Cooperative Institute—an educational organization the main function of which is the promotion of cooperative ideals and practice and the voicing of the opinion of the cooperative movement in Bombay.

Cost of Living

Report of the technical committee appointed by the chairman of the President's Committee on the Cost of Living: An appraisal of the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of living in 1941-44. Washington 25, [U. S. National War Labor Board], 1944. Various paging; mimeographed.

The committee was composed of Wesley C. Mitchell, chairman, Simon Kuznets, and Margaret G. Reid.

Editor's Note.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

Index of cost of goods and services in Honolulu, Hawaii. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 10 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 14.)

The indexes presented are based on a family-expenditure survey made in the summer of 1943. The results of the survey, covering 100 families with comparatively high salaries, are included in the pamphlet.

Working class income and expenditure, [Great Britain]—an analysis of wartime changes. Oxford, Institute of Statistics, 1944. 27 pp., charts. (Bulletin, Vol. 6, supplement No. 6.) 2s. 6d.

Data are broken down by kind of expenditure.

Economic and Social Problems

Fiscal and monetary policy. By Beardsley Ruml and H. Chr. Sonne. Washington 6, National Planning Association, 1944. 42 pp. (Planning pamphlet No. 35.) 25 cents.

The writers suggest that the main dependence for Federal tax revenues should be a graduated progressive income tax and that tax revenues should balance expenditures at some agreed levels of high employment and high production, with amortization of debt only when employment and production are above these levels.

New firms and free enterprise: Pre-war and post-war aspects. By Alfred R. Oxenfeldt. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. 196 pp. \$3.25.

A discussion of such questions as the causes of new entries into business, the considerations which determine whether or not new firms are socially useful, the mortality of new enterprises, and the probable conditions, favorable and unfavorable, that will affect the establishment of new firms during the post-war period. The author concludes that new firms will play a smaller role in the post-war period than they have in the past.

Production, jobs, and taxes: Post-war revision of the Federal tax system to help achieve higher production and more jobs. By Harold M. Groves. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1944. 116 pp. \$1.25.

First of a series of reports to be published under the auspices of the research committee (composed of businessmen) of the Committee for Economic Development. The study emphasizes "incentive" taxation as a means of promoting business activity and employment.

The journey to work, its significance for industrial and community life. By Kate K. Liepmann. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd., 1944. 199 pp., maps. (International library of sociology and social reconstruction.) 15s. net.

Deals with the cost and strain involved in long journeys to and from the place of work and the social effects when people dwell at a distance from their work. Results of statistical studies of the cost and duration of travel connected with jobs in industrial areas of England are included. The author also cites studies made in other countries of traveling done by workers to and from their workplaces.

The Nazi economic system: Germany's mobilization for war. By Otto Nathau. Durham, N. C., Duke University Press, 1944. 378 pp. \$4.

Comprehensive study of the organizational machinery and the system of controls developed under German fascism for the conduct of economic affairs. One chapter is devoted to measures and institutions regulating the organization, distribution, and allocation of labor.

Education and Training

Education and training for demobilized service personnel. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Committee on Education, 1944. 10 pp.

Various proposals for education and training for men and women demobilized from the armed forces, to facilitate their readjustment to civilian life, are discussed in the pamphlet and certain fundamental considerations which should be basic in approaching the preparation of legislation are pointed out.

Evaluating apprentices: Cost of training and value of production of apprentices; Apprentice record cards. By O. L. Harvey. Washington 25, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Training, Apprentice-Training Service, 1944. 20 pp.

Federal aids to training, with special reference to the transportation industry. Washington 25, U. S. Office of Defense Transportation, Division of Transport Personnel, 1943. 33 pp.

Federal grants for vocational rehabilitation. By Mary E. Macdonald. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1944. 404 pp., bibliography. \$2.50.

Analyzes the development of, and the major forces that contributed to, the movement for Federal grants for vocational rehabilitation from 1920 to 1943.

Retraining war workers for peacetime activities. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Committee on Education, 1944. 7 pp.

The committee believes that the problem of returning war workers to peacetime occupations can be largely achieved through the action of local organizations and the use of training programs already in operation rather than through Federal intervention.

Future education and training for British industry. By Tudor J. Jones. London, George G. Harrap & Co., Ltd., 1943. 95 pp., illus. 5s.

Employment

Impact of war upon employment. By Donald H. Davenport, Charles D. Stewart, and Hugh B. Killough. (In *Public Personnel Review*, Chicago 37, Ill., July 1944, pp. 140-145.) \$1.50.)

Description of wartime changes in employment and a discussion of the employment problems of post-war reconversion, with tentative estimates of the shifts in employment during the transition to peace.

Planned dovetailing of seasonal employment—an approach to the problem, with application to Cuyahoga County, Ohio. By Sam Arnold. Columbus, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1944. 51 pp., charts. (Research monograph No. 35.) \$1.

Study of the experience of such industries as dairying and the dairy products and ice cream industry, with a proposed procedure for dovetailing employment.

State distribution of Federal employees in October 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1645; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1944.) Free.

Employment in the shipbuilding industry, 1935-43. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 19 pp. (Serial No. R. 1648; reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1944.) Free.

Annual review of employment and pay rolls in Canada, 1943. Ottawa, Department of Trade and Commerce, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1944. 73 pp., charts.

A supplement to this report has been published by the Canadian Bureau of Statistics under the title of "An estimate of total employment on October 1, 1943, in industries reporting to the monthly survey of employment" (11 pp., processed).

Handicapped Workers

Employment of handicapped persons. New York 17, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1944. 23 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 63.)

Physical demands and capacities analysis: Part I, Physical demands and capacities analysis manual; Part II, Physical demands information, shipbuilding industry. Oakland, Calif., Permanente Foundation, 1944. 627 pp.

The material presented in this manual specifically defines the physical and environmental demands of shipyard jobs while the physical-capacities analysis makes it possible to define specifically the physical and environmental capacities of workers. The manual thus provides a basic pattern and a common terminology for the job analyst, the industrial physician, and the placement officer.

Rehabilitation and training for post-war employment. New York 20, National Association of Manufacturers, 1944. 38 pp., illus.

Panel discussion at Second War Congress of American Industry, December 1943. The discussion centered on the problems of demobilizing the fighting man and the war worker, with especial emphasis on the rehabilitation and training of the disabled or medically-discharged veteran.

Training and resettlement of disabled persons. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1944. 10 pp.
Describes provisions for the training of disabled persons in Great Britain and administration of the program.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Annual reports of the United States Public Health Service, 1941-42, 1942-43. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, 1943. 194 pp. 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The reports include accounts of researches and other work on industrial hygiene carried out by the National Institute of Health (Division of Industrial Hygiene).

Health on the production front. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1944. 80 pp., illus.

This manual describes medical and other services necessary to maintain the health and efficiency of war workers and to combat absenteeism, in both large and small plants.

International organization for health. By Charles C.-E. A. Winslow, M. D. New York, Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 1944. 32 pp. 10 cents.

The writer stresses the necessity for a permanent international health organization for the prevention of epidemic diseases and the promotion of the health of the peoples of the world, and outlines the essential elements of such an organization.

Outlines of industrial medicine, legislation, and hygiene. By James Burnett. Bristol, England, John Wright & Sons, Ltd., 1943. 87 pp. 7s. 6d.

Lists the industries in which the principal industrial poisons and industrial diseases are formed, the clinical features of poisoning, and preventive measures. There is a section on industrial legislation and one on industrial hygiene.

Tuberculosis-labor and management: A guide to industrial relations. By William A. Doppler. New York 19, National Tuberculosis Association, 1944. 52 pp.

Discusses the attitudes of labor and management toward methods of tuberculosis control and outlines procedures which might be followed in the promotion of X-ray surveys. Reading lists are provided.

[*Wartime industrial dermatoses.*] (In Journal of the American Medical Association, Chicago 10, Ill., May 20, 1944, pp. 179-200; illus. 25 cents.)

Symposium of four articles: Occupational contact dermatitis among aircraft workers, by A. Fletcher Hall, M. D.; Dermatitis from explosives, by Louis Schwartz, M. D.; Dermatitis from cutting oils, solvents, and dielectrics, including chloracne, by Samuel M. Peck, M. D.; Dermatophytosis and occupational dermatitis, by John G. Downing, M. D.

Housing

Housing for war and the job ahead—a common goal for communities, for industry, labor, and government. Washington 25, U. S. National Housing Agency, 1944. 23 pp.

A discussion of the war housing program and the problems that will arise after the war in disposing of war-built dwellings and supplying housing needs.

Housing in Philadelphia, 1942-43. Philadelphia, Philadelphia Housing Association, [1944?]. 30 pp., maps, charts.

Deals with the housing situation in wartime, rents, population shifts, and related subjects.

Housing yearbook, 1944. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 1944. 176 pp., maps. (Publication No. N191.) \$3.

Contains articles on housing subjects and directories of housing agencies.

Politics in housing. By R. J. Thomas. Detroit 2, Mich., International Union, United Automobile, Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers of America, 1944. 18 pp. (Publication No. 42.) 10 cents.

Address delivered before the first National Convention of the Public Housing Conference, held in St. Louis in March 1944. It is a statement from the consumer's point of view.

Post-war housing—a challenge to New England communities. Boston 16, New England Council, 1944. 13 pp., charts.

Statement on existing housing and the problems involved in providing for future needs.

War housing guide—what the problems are and how to solve them in the interests of war production. Washington 25, U. S. War Production Board, Office of Labor Production, Plant and Community Facilities Service, 1944. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Annual statistical number, Accident Prevention Magazine, Portland Cement Association. Chicago 10, June 1944. 15 pp., charts.

Contains the annual report for 1943 of accidents occurring in plants of the Portland Cement Association.

Off the job accidents: The relation of light to safety. Schenectady, N. Y., General Electric Co., Lamp Department, [1944?]. 21 pp., diagrams, illus.

The report shows the extent to which inadequate street lighting has contributed to accidents off the job among industrial workers and has thus impeded the war effort.

Safety through management leadership. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1944. 19 pp. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Workmen's compensation for public employees—an analysis of State and Federal legislation. By Leifur Magnusson. Chicago, Ill., Public Administration Service, 1944. 43 pp. (Publication No. 88.) \$1.50.

Workmen's compensation in Canada—a comparison of Provincial laws in July 1944. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1944. 30 pp.; mimeographed.

Includes a table showing, by Province, the diseases for which compensation is payable.

La protección de la salud en el trabajo—evolución de su concepto jurídico en medio siglo, [Spain]. By J. Dantín Gallego. (In Revista de Trabajo, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, January 1943, pp. 21-28; charts.)

Reviews the development of Spanish legislation concerning industrial safety and workmen's accident compensation from 1873 through November 14, 1942, and summarizes the results of the legislation.

Industrial Relations

Collective bargaining procedures. By Neil W. Chamberlain. Washington, American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. 141 pp. \$2.50.

Description and analysis of the various steps and methods in the process by which representatives of labor and management resolve their conflicts and negotiate agreements. The use of economic data and the role of Government in collective-bargaining relations are also discussed.

Labor unrest and dissatisfaction. Report of the study made by the special research committee, International Brotherhood of Paper Makers. Albany 1, N. Y., International Brotherhood of Paper Makers, 1944. 70 pp.

The National War Labor Board and collective bargaining. By Paul R. Hays. (In Columbia Law Review, Columbia University, New York 27, May 1944, pp. 409-432. 85 cents.)

Cites cases and decisions which show the extent to which the National War Labor Board has encouraged parties to industrial controversies to settle their differences by collective bargaining.

Seniority in industrial relations: A selected list of references. Compiled by Laura A. Thompson. Washington 25, U. S. Department of Labor, Library, June 1944. 21 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Strikes in 1943. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 40 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 782; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, May 1944, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

Industry Reports

Construction costs, 1944 edition. (In *Engineering News-Record*, New York, April 20, 1944, pp. 101-226.)

This 1944 edition of the *Engineering News-Record's* section on construction costs contains extensive wage and price data for different types of construction and for different areas. Some of the series extend back to the period of the first World War or earlier.

Working conditions in fire departments of the United States and Canada, 1944. (In *International Fire Fighter*, International Association of Fire Fighters, Washington, May 1944, pp. 14-23.)

Tabular statement showing, by city, the number of days of annual vacation granted, number of days off per month, extent of salary allowance when incapacitated by injury or by illness, clothing allowance, maximum age for appointment, whether a salary increase was granted in 1943-44, and other information.

Statistics on the Puerto Rican needlework industry. New York 19 (165 West 46th Street), U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, July 1944. 52 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Contains data on the needlework industry in Puerto Rico regarding production, employment, wages, working hours, and other matters.

Similar reports recently published by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions cover such industries as sugar manufacturing, leaf tobacco, shipping, banking and insurance, industrial alcohol, and rum.

Minería, años 1940 y 1941, [Chile]. Valparaíso, Dirección General de Estadística, 1944. 81 pp.

This yearbook of mining in Chile gives statistics of employment, industrial accidents, and total contributions to social-insurance funds for the copper, nitrate, and coal industries, 1940 and 1941; average daily wages in copper, nitrate, and coal industries, 1937-41; and employment in nitrate, coal, copper, iron, and placer gold mining, 1935-41.

Labor Legislation

Economic coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act. By Harry Weiss. (In *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Cambridge, Mass., May 1944, pp. 460-481. \$1.25.)

Evaluation of the economic coverage of the act and suggestions for revision. The writer points out that the measure does not cover establishments as a unit, does not take competitive relationships into account, and lacks any satisfactory distinction between economic activities primarily local in character and those with substantial interstate implications.

Tenure legislation [for teachers]—how to get it, how to keep it. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, Committee on Tenure, 1944. 27 pp. 25 cents.

Compendio de la legislación del trabajo, [Argentina]. By J. Soifer, N. A. Caro, L. Ureta Saenz Peña. Buenos Aires, Compañía Publicitaria Argentina, 1942. 338 pp.

Compendium of certain Argentine labor legislation enacted through October 23, 1942, with a list of international reciprocity treaties concerning workmen's compensation for industrial accidents, and information on collective agreements between employers and workers.

The consolidation of Brazilian labor laws—an English translation. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa Nacional, 1944. 236 pp.

La législation du travail en Egypte. Cairo, [Ministère des Affaires Sociales, 1942?]. 91 pp.

Compilation of Egyptian labor laws enacted up to September 1942.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Annual report of the Union Health Center, International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, 1943. New York, 1944. 108 pp., charts, illus.

Description of organization, operation, and services of this 31-year-old, union-sponsored health program.

Labor lawyer. By Louis Waldman. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1944. 394 pp. \$3.50.

An inside story of the growth, development, and ideological conflicts of the American labor movement and of minor political parties and organizations for social reform, told by a labor attorney who has played a prominent role in these movements for the past 30 years as participant, adviser, and spokesman. Mirrored in this autobiography are many of the leading men and women who directed these organizations and influenced their policies.

Thirty-second annual report on labor organization in Canada (for the calendar year 1942). Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1944. 68 pp., charts. 25 cents.

Covers history, structure, distribution, and membership of unions, and the benefits provided for members.

The trade unions in a new Germany: Some observations on the problem of economic and social reconstruction of Germany and the re-creation of the trade-union movement. By Hans Gottfurcht. London, S. W. 1, Trade Union Centre for German Workers in Great Britain, 1944. 8 pp.; mimeographed. 6d.

British trade unions. By Mary Agnes Hamilton. Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1943. 32 pp. (Oxford pamphlets on home affairs, No. H. 7.) 6d. net. Describes the rise and growth of British trade-unions and their present role.

Forty-ninth annual report [of Irish Trade Union Congress], being the report of the national executive for 1942-43 and the report of the proceedings of the 49th annual meeting, July 1943. Dublin, National Executive of the Irish Trade Union Congress, 1943. 153 pp.

Post-War Reconstruction

Post-war goals and economic reconstruction. New York, New York University, Institute on Postwar Reconstruction, 1944. 304 pp. 30 cents.

Addresses delivered at the second series of conferences of the Institute on Post-war Reconstruction. One of the addresses dealt with "What labor wants after the war" and another with "Transforming workers to peacetime production."

Problems of war and the transition to peace. Edited by John A. Krout. New York, Academy of Political Science, May 1944. 128 pp. (Proceedings, Vol. XXI, No. 1.) \$2.50.

Includes papers dealing with problems of full employment, wage policy, price controls, and termination of war contracts.

Public spending and post-war economic policy. By Sherwood M. Fine. New York, Columbia University Press, 1944. 177 pp., bibliography, charts. \$2.50.

Examines some of the major problems of economic rehabilitation in the United States, particularly the scope and place of compensatory public spending.

Report on demobilization. By James R. Mock and Evangeline Thurber. Norman, Okla., University of Oklahoma Press, 1944. 257 pp., illus. \$3.

Account of the manner and methods by which the United States turned from peace to war, and later from war to peace after World War I. With the hope that present planners may learn from the mistakes of their predecessors, the authors point out the differences that existed between plan and performance, between blueprints and reality.

Germany in the transition period. By Hedwig Wachenheim. New York, American Labor Conference on International Affairs, 1944. 35 pp.; mimeographed. (Studies in post-war reconstruction, No. 3.)

Deals with the problems of Germany's internal reconstruction, outlining plans for the reorganization of the labor movement, labor relations, and social services.

Norway's problems of social and economic reconstruction. By Knut Getz Wold. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, June 1944, pp. 585-607. 50 cents. Distributed in United States by International Labor Office, Washington 6.)

The U. S. S. R. in reconstruction. New York 19, American Russian Institute, Inc., 1944. 160 pp., maps.

Collection of essays concerning progress in the work of reconstruction in the liberated regions of the Soviet Union. Administrative, manpower, material, and financial aspects of planned reconstruction in city and countryside are extensively discussed.

Social Security

The cost of a "Beveridge plan" in the United States. By Lawrence R. Klein. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., May 1944, pp. 423-437. \$1.25.)

The author calculates, for the years 1945 and 1965, the approximate costs of an American Beveridge plan providing for a comprehensive minimum program for social security. He estimates that the total expenditures under such a plan in the United States in 1945 would be \$13,023,000,000 and in 1965, \$15,617,000,000. The more limited benefits under the Wagner-Murray-Dingell bill, it is estimated, would amount to from 12.5 billion to 14 billion dollars in 1965. The writer points out that the United States Treasury has estimated that the proposed levy of 6 percent on wages and salaries to be paid by employers and workers under the proposed bill would yield only about 5.3 billion dollars this year, far less than the cost of the program in a post-war year.

Dismissal pay. By Frank P. Huddle. Washington (1013 Thirteenth Street NW.), Editorial Research Reports, 1944. 16 pp. (Vol. 1, 1944, No. 13). \$1.

Deals with the attitude of President Roosevelt and that of trade-union organizations toward special provision for dismissal compensation in war industries; development of severance-pay programs in private industry; and the possible value of dismissal compensation over unemployment insurance to meet the problems of transitional unemployment after the war.

Freedom from fear: The interrelation of domestic and international programs. By Louis H. Pink. New York, Harper & Bros., 1944. 254 pp., bibliography, \$2.50.

Discusses the economic conditions which lead to war and the necessity for maintenance of full employment and extension of social insurance if a sound economy is to be achieved. These aims must be secured not only on a national but on an international scale if the peace of the world is to be attained.

Survey of social security statistics. By Herman Sturm. Washington 25, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 71 pp.; processed. (Bureau memorandum No. 56.)

This report is designed to furnish a guide to the scope, character, and sources of statistics made available by the operation of the three major programs of social security in the United States—old-age and survivors' insurance, unemployment compensation, and public assistance—and of statistical series maintained by the Social Security Board on related programs.

Unemployment compensation in the United States. By Ruth Reticker. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, April-May 1944, pp. 446-472. Reprints of article are available at 10 cents each; distributed in United States by International Labor Office, Washington 6.)

Analysis of the provisions of the State unemployment-insurance laws and a discussion of some of the problems arising under the separate State systems. Arguments for and against a national unemployment-insurance system are presented.

Informe anual del gerente [de la Caja de Seguro Social, Panamá] a la junta directiva, enero 1 de 1943. Panama, 1943. 24 pp., charts.

Report for 1942 of the Panamanian Social Insurance Fund for Government employees throughout the Republic and persons employed by private concerns in the Panama and Colon districts, including data on number of persons insured; receipts; administration costs and benefits paid for sickness, maternity, disability, old age, and death under the social-insurance law of 1941; and retirement benefits under various laws enacted from 1924 through 1941.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Present salaries being paid in fire departments in the United States and Canada, January 1944. (In International Fire Fighter, International Association of Fire Fighters, Washington, April 1944, pp. 8-18.)

Tabular statement, by city and occupation.

Wartime wages and railroad labor: A report on the 1942-43 wage movement of the transportation brotherhoods. By A. F. Whitney. Cleveland, Ohio, Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, 1944. 228 pp.

This report, by the president of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, on the 1942-43 railroad wage controversy includes a discussion of the inter-union disagreements among the five transportation unions over questions of basic policy.

Trend of earnings among white-collar workers during the war. Washington 25, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1944. 17 pp. (Bull. No. 783; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, May 1944.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25.

The recent trend of salaries in child welfare agencies. By Ralph G. Hurlin. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1944. 14 pp. 25 cents.

Prepared as a supplement to the more extensive study of salaries of child-welfare workers made by the Russell Sage Foundation in 1941, this study shows that child-welfare agencies have improved their salaries substantially in the past 2 years.

Pervailing wages and hours, warehouse workers, Honolulu and Hilo, Hawaii, October 1943 and January 1944. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1944. 8 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 13-A.)

Similar reports also have been issued by the Hawaiian Department of Labor and Industrial Relations on wages and hours in motion-picture theaters, Honolulu, October 1942 and April 1944 (Bull. No. 15, 5 pp.); power laundries and dry-cleaning establishments, Honolulu, April 1944 (Bull. No. 16, 19 pp.); and eating and drinking establishments, Honolulu, April 1944 (Bull. No. 17, 18 pp.).

Principles for regulating farm workers' wages in Germany. By Frieda Wunderlich. (In American Journal of Economics and Sociology, New York, April 1944, pp. 307-320. \$1.)

Examines the changes in the wages of agricultural workers brought about by the Nazi wage policy, largely prior to the present war.

General Reports

Bibliography on labor and social welfare in Latin America. Compiled by Sylvia Pollack Bernstein. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Labor and Social Information, 1944. 76 pp.; mimeographed.

Selected list of references to books and periodical articles in English published from 1930 through December 1943, classified by subject and by country.

Adaptación de los salarios a las fluctuaciones del costo de la vida—problemas que suscita, normas de aplicación práctica. Buenos Aires, Ministerio del Interior, Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, División de Estadística, 1943. 86 pp.; mimeographed. (Serie B, Estadísticas y censos, No. 12.)

Report on adjustment of wages to cost of living in Argentina, giving text of enabling legislation of 1943; a description of the procedure to be followed in operating the scheme; and actual wages established by collective agreements in various industries, 1939-43. Experience in relating wages to cost of living in Canada, Austria, Germany, Hungary, and Poland after the first World War is cited.

Corporations, labor, and tax system in Brazil. New York 17, Brazilian Government Trade Bureau, 1944. 99 pp.

One chapter of this pamphlet, which was prepared for persons wishing to engage in business in Brazil, lists various legislative provisions for the protection of workers; separate sections are devoted to minimum wages, hiring and discharge, and pay-roll procedures, the latter showing wage deductions for social-security and other purposes.

The Japanese Empire: Industries and transportation, a selected list of references. Compiled by Florence S. Hellman. Washington 25, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1943. 56 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

Among the publications listed are many that contain data of interest to students of labor and economic problems.

New Zealand—a working democracy. By Walter Nash. New York, Duell, Sloane & Pearce, 1943. 335 pp. \$3.50.

Gives a picture of modern New Zealand as it exists in wartime and as it is hoped the country will develop in peacetime. Includes chapters on the manpower problem and post-war reconstruction.

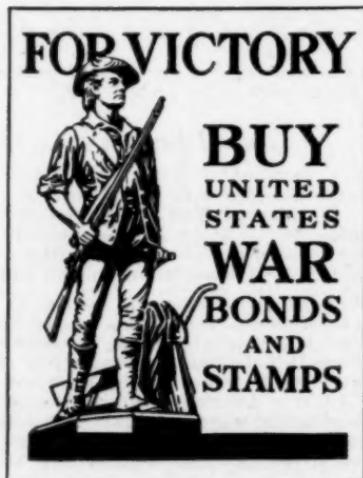
Palestine—land of promise. By Walter Clay Lowdermilk. New York, Harper & Bros., 1944. 236 pp., map, illus. \$2.50.

Describes agricultural and industrial conditions in Palestine with special reference to that country's absorptive capacity in relation to Jewish immigration. Recommends the establishment of a Jordan Valley Authority similar to the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Workers in the Soviet Union. By Andrew Rothstein. London, Frederick Muller, Ltd., 1942. 64 pp. 1s.6d.

General discussion—introduced by a description of labor conditions in Tsarist Russia—of Soviet wages and hours, working conditions, social insurance, trade unions, women in employment, education, and use of leisure.

Safeguards against oppressive labor conditions in backward countries, by Alfred Braunthal; *Labor conditions in the Far East,* by Harry Paxton Howard. New York 17, American Labor Conference on International Affairs, 1944. 54 pp.; mimeographed. (Studies in postwar reconstruction, No. 1.) 75 cents.



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